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CONTENTS FOR FEBRUARY, 1941

Editorial Comment

Why Phi Delta Kappa, *P. M. C.* 217

Articles

Democracy: An Educational Challenge, *Dwight D W Davis* 219

An Experience in Democracy, *Coleman M. Herts* 221

We Produce Men and Mechanics, *Edward C. Estabrooke* 223

Teacher-Student Planning Works! *Benjamin H. Culley* 227

Problems of the School Patrol, *A. R. Lauer* 230

Nine Thousand Numbers in a Fish Bowl, *Joseph J. Romoda* 236

Keeping Abreast of the Times

Personal and Professional 241

Meetings and Conferences 243

Public Schools 243

Colleges and Universities 245

Education on Air and Screen 247

The Member Speaks 248

Directory of Chapter Secretaries....Inside Back Cover

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THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN

VOL. XXIII FEBRUARY, 1941 No. 6

Editorial Comment

WHY PHI DELTA KAPPA

THERE must be a reason for such an organization as Phi Delta Kappa. Certainly there must have been a vision and a purpose for the organization when it came into being and there must have been something about the organization to have sustained it and to have given it vitality through the years of its existence. On March 1, 1941, thirty years will have passed since the amalgamation of three independent fraternities into one national professional fraternity for men. Having its beginning in 1906 at Indiana University as Pi Kappa Mu, in 1908 at Columbia University as Phi Delta Kappa, and in 1909 at the University of Missouri as Nu Rho Beta, these three were in all essentials of one purpose—to provide fellowship and professional stimulation among men interested in education as a profession. The following paragraph quoted from the history of Phi Delta Kappa* is particularly significant today:

> One of the outstanding characteristics of the three groups which later became amalgamated as Phi Delta Kappa was their emphasis upon the professional, the cause of Education and the scientific study of Education through research. The social aspect of the early organizations was not overlooked and the selection of outstanding men, or men of outstanding promise, made the honorary aspect of the fraternity very evident. It should be noted, however, that the organizations were never considered as social organizations in the usual sense of the word and that when the question of characterizing the fraternity as an honorary or a professional fraternity presented itself, the decision was emphatically in favor of the professional.

Walter A. Jessup, in a letter dated February 1, 1911, spoke of "its value in the matter of developing a social consciousness, centered around an idealistic side of the teacher's professional work." He continued by saying, "The men here (Columbia) have especially enjoyed the personal friendships that have been made possible through this organization." Referring to the initiation of new members, he said, "no single thing about Teachers College has contributed so much toward a development of a professional feeling on the part of the men participating."

Pi Kappa Mu stated as its purpose "that the society should be self-perpetuating, should be based on the fundamental principles of fellowship, and should provide entertainment for the distinguished educators visiting the University. The organization believed implicitly that the social life of the teacher should be cultural and developed and the chapter gave definite opportunities for such growth. An additional doctrine, that of research, came later to be the most basic." When the second chapter of Pi Kappa Mu was organized at Stanford in 1909, under the leadership of Professor John A. Bergstrom, who was the guiding spirit in the organization at Indiana University, the same purpose prevailed. The members "felt that the aims of the organization were to bind together in unity a group having common professional interests, to emphasize professional ideals, to provide mutual fellowship, and to make possible a concerted action on matters of common interest."

William H. Lucas, a member of Phi Delta Kappa at Columbia University, said in a communication dated May, 1909, "Strictly speaking, Phi Delta Kappa has two fundamental purposes: on one hand, it has encouraged a social attitude amongst its members, bringing them into a closer bond of fellowship and cooperation; on the other hand, it has emphasized the professional standing for the development and spirit of the scientific study of education. . . ."

The early correspondence of Walter A. Jessup, an officer of the Columbia chapter and later the

*All quotations in this editorial are taken from "The History of the Organization and Development of Phi Delta Kappa," which was published by the fraternity as part of the *Phi Delta Kappa Directory* in 1931.

first national secretary of Phi Delta Kappa, is especially significant as we seek to discover "Why Phi Delta Kappa." In reply to an inquiry, he wrote on January 19, 1910, as follows:

"Professor Suzzalo and Professor Strayer are members of another organization in Teachers College which is projecting a national organization along wholly different lines. Both of these men are advisory members of Alpha Chapter (Columbia) of Phi Delta Kappa. The other plan is to organize a national honorary society in education along lines very similar to Phi Beta Kappa and Sigma Xi. As we see it, and as our advisory members see it, there is no essential conflict between the two organizations. Phi Delta Kappa represents a Greek-letter professional fraternity in education altogether analogous to the professional fraternities in law, medicine, engineering, etc. We have no intention of encroaching upon the territory of the other organization, and the two could exist side by side in harmony in the same institution." . . . Our purpose, as stated above, is the formation of a strong professional fraternity in education.

A year later he wrote, "I know of no single organization so capable of the development of a truly professional spirit in Education. Those of us who are more mature at present will profit least, perhaps, but it seems to me that we owe it to the profession to take this opportunity of developing this spirit."

Throughout the early correspondence and history of Phi Delta Kappa we find comparable statements of the purpose and zeal of its membership. A sort of missionary spirit seemed to permeate the organization, a spirit which even yet moves Phi Delta Kappa to explore new trails and to build new temples. Having a worthy purpose, inspired by lofty ideals, and bound together for mutual help and encouragement, Phi Delta Kappa has contributed in large measure to the building of a profession. It has been a professional fraternity with a goal, a program, and a will to accomplish. Some have said and will doubtless continue to say that Phi Delta Kappa is an honorary fraternity, all of the history of the fraternity to the contrary notwithstanding. Why debate the issue? There is nothing that can be said that is stronger proof of the error than the record of Phi Delta Kappa itself. Of course, it is an honor to be a member of Phi Delta Kappa. It is an honor to be a member of the teaching profession. It is an honor to belong to any forward-looking organization which is committed to high ideals and worthy attainments. But membership in Phi Delta Kappa has not been conferred upon nor awarded to any initiate as an honor earned. It would be an empty honor indeed if conferred upon a student initiate before professional accomplishments worthy of honor had been achieved. An invitation to membership in Phi Delta Kappa is an invitation to become part of a movement and to associate with other men of like interests and ambitions.

The honorary fraternity has its function in education as in all other fields of learning and endeavor and its awards their place as incentives to outstanding achievement. We would not minimize the importance of such fraternities in any way. The professional fraternity also has its function and its place as a continuing training school for better professional service. Education is well provided for in this regard. Kappa Delta Pi is a large and strong honorary fraternity in education which awards membership to men and women alike and without regard to race or color. Pi Lambda Theta is an honorary sorority which elects its members from among the women who specialize in education. Phi Delta Kappa began its existence as a professional fraternity in education and declared the field to be open to any other group which might desire to develop as an honorary fraternity. It has consistently adhered to that policy.

Why Phi Delta Kappa? To carry on the work which it set out to do. To unite men of common professional interests with a closer bond of fellowship and cooperation. To emphasize the stand of the profession for the development and spirit of the scientific study of education. To promote the development of a true profession of education. To seek through research, to serve, and in serving to give devoted leadership.

Probably the greatest achievement of Phi Delta Kappa has been made through its influence, direct and indirect, in the lives of 30,000 men who have accepted and fostered the ideals of the fraternity in their professional work. Its contribution to the development of a professional consciousness among the trained leadership of the profession also has been in the nature of a major achievement. Its real achievements of value cannot be measured and perhaps not even identified in many instances. If individual testimonials have any value, we may be certain that Phi Delta Kappa has played a significant part in the growth and development of American education.

(Continued on page 220)

Democracy: An Educational Challenge

By DWIGHT D W DAVIS

★ *Dwight D W Davis is Assistant Professor of Social Science, Eastern Oregon College of Education, La Grande. He is a member of Phi Delta Kappa.*

WHEN most people think of democracy, almost invariably their first reaction is in terms of Jefferson's dictum, "Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness." Associated with it is the idea that our national constitutional Bill of Rights is the automatic guarantor enabling us to achieve the Jeffersonian ideal. This latter association, however, is false; for positively there is nothing automatic about democratic goals. Their achievement is the by-product of social energy intelligently and persistently applied. The accomplishments of democracy must turn out to be more than a pictorial record in reverse. To avoid such a situation, we in the Americas must be more interested in the realisms of democratic achievement than we are in uttering voluble statements about democratic abstractions.

The citadel of democracy is enlightenment, and therein lies an educational challenge: the schools of the nation are under solemn obligation to impress youth with the gravity of the attack now being launched against the democratic way of life and to inculcate in them basic democratic principles. America's school system must help today's youth re-evaluate democracy as a mode of life.

The first part of this process might well center in an evaluation of the concept, "liberty." Contrary to popular opinion, liberty does not imply unrestrained freedom or license to do as one may please without regulation or control. The writer believes that the essence of Jeffersonian liberty inheres in the following concepts made universally fruitful in concrete, daily situations:

1. *Restriction and conformity.* If restraints were not imposed by society upon man, he would soon be in a state of anarchism and chaos would be the result. Intelligent acquiescence to majority decisions is liberty's first requirement; and however much minorities may chafe under the decisions, their responsibility is compliance until such time as public opinion has changed.

2. *Subordination and integration.* Personal ambitions must be sublimated for the enhancement of the social weal. Nothing short of this will suffice to bring about effective solidarity of the whole group. Individual selfishness must be discarded before joint endeavor can be made to dovetail into collective security; and from this process each personality derives its own unique strength.

3. *Cooperation and judgment.* Whatever else liberty may imply it certainly takes into account the joint nature of the social enterprise. As we work together for the common cause, sanity is needed everywhere. The entire venture rests upon the assumption that the masses have been trained in the art of making correct decisions. This does not suggest the construction of pre-arranged patterns of response which can be selected at will by the people to fit any exigency of the hour. It connotes, rather, a system of public education that has discharged its obligations so well that, whatever the current crisis, the masses shall be capable of independent analysis, based upon an accumulation of facts, rather than capitulating to the dangers of composite emotionalism.

But liberty is not the only concept that needs to be re-evaluated. Too long the major emphasis has been placed upon the prerogatives of citizens in a democracy to the exclusion of any serious consideration of the numerous obligations which are but the inevitable concomitants of such a system.

An extension of the franchise privilege challenges the voter to use his power with intelligent discrimination; freedom of speech and press is accorded individuals only because the government has faith in the people's integrity to use these media for creative enlightenment; right to trial by jury is guaranteed because it is assumed each citizen will be so law abiding that recourse to this institution will not be necessary, but that if for any reason it is, justice will be dispensed by twelve civic-minded, well-informed persons; right to petition the government on any matter is extended everyone because it is assumed no one will abuse

the privilege by cluttering, with petty legal cases, court dockets that ought to be open for more weighty matters.

Democratic liberties do inhere in the foregoing accepted civil and political privileges, but it must not be taken for granted that the donee accepts these gifts without being placed under obligation for the assumption of corresponding responsibilities. And every intelligent citizen interested in the preservation and continuation of the American way of life will make an immediate self-evaluative response to the thesis here set forth.

Democracy challenges the schools of America with one other responsibility, and that is to point out the essential connection that exists between economic scarcity and the *isms*.

What is the gastronomic strength of our democracy? The ability of a nation to feed, clothe, and shelter its people is an issue equally as crucial as that of prepared armament—a point of view that needs to be impressed upon youth and adult alike.

When we consider the crucial principles upon which democracy is based, we find its continued existence is neither dependent upon a body of expoundable platitudes nor upon a Bill of Rights made part of the supreme law of the land—however essential these may be. The masses appear not to be as fundamentally interested in these things as they are actively concerned over their daily bread. History, with startling clarity, seems to indicate that that system of government survives best which best cares for the physical needs of man.

American newspapers and other agencies of public opinion have done their best to create for the average citizen a picture of national military unpreparedness. At last the American public seems convinced that a military budget approaching the fifteen billion mark is a small sum to pay for the continued autonomy of the western hemisphere, and for that reason has committed itself to a policy of preparedness.

No one, however, should delude himself with the idea that a two-ocean armada, 1,000 new fighting planes a month, a standing army of 1,200,000 men, and the conscription of 12,000,000 additional young men for military training—imperative as these may be—will safeguard our nation against the encroachment of either foreign ideologies or actual overt attack. The United States will be just as secure from outside onslaught as it is secure from internal discord.

The surest device available for the fomenting of internal disloyalty and ultimate revolution is the technique of enforced mass fasting. The inhumane socio-economic maladjustments of the depression years must not be allowed to recur. The hunger pangs of the unemployed, everywhere and at all times, constitute the most potent threat against any system of life. If the American educational system is pledged to the democratic ideal, it will see to it that youth understand these principles. To "put first things first" is everywhere a mark of wisdom. One of America's *firsts*, along with national preparedness, is progressive intellectual enlightenment and continued amelioration of societal suffering.

The future of democracy in the western hemisphere is inextricably interrelated with the future of American education. If the schools of America take the initiative in helping youth think through the foregoing basic principles upon which our democratic civilization rests, our way of life shall be assured.

Why Phi Delta Kappa

(Continued from page 218)

But to these less tangible values we may add others more generally recognized. The selection, guidance, and personal stimulation of worthy young men for the profession of teaching and the wide distribution among young men of *Teaching as a Man's Job;* the publication of *Education Abstracts* as a service to education; the series of special issues of THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN over the past three or four years; the current project for the publication of a *Dictionary of Education;* and the publication of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* by Rho Chapter; these and many other activities have measured the vitality and value of Phi Delta Kappa. Why Phi Delta Kappa? The answer is in the record of the past thirty years.—P. M. C.

CORRECTION NOTICE

Readers of THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN have called attention to errors and inconsistencies in the article, "Who's Who Among the Magazines," by William D. Wilkins and William H. Anderson, Jr., in the November, 1940, issue, pages 105-11. There has been considerable correspondence between the critics, the editor, and the authors, and the editor hopes soon to publish a complete statement regarding corrections and revision.

An Experience in Democracy

By COLEMAN M. HERTS

THIS is a story of Democracy in Action from the word "go." It is the story of a camp for underprivileged children, Camp Mary Quigg Newton, located near Conifer, which is thirty miles southwest of Denver in the heart of the first range of the Rocky Mountains. The camp was made possible, because of their faith in the essential goodness of human nature, by three persons: Edgar Wahlberg, pastor of Grace Church and director of Grace Community Center of Denver; Ruth M. Stutchfield, director of summer camps of the Denver Community Chest; and John J. O. Moore, executive secretary of the University of Kansas Y.M.C.A.

Under the guidance of Mr. Moore, the camp's first director, a farm house became the administrative quarters, the barn blossomed into the carpenter shop and assembly hall, and the garage became a kitchen and dining hall. The calf pen was fashioned into a combination one-room hospital and library. Four cabins containing pot-bellied stoves and double-deck beds, a shower room, a dark room for photographic developing, government-built privies, and a beautiful memorial chapel, commanding a high hill, complete the list of permanent structures in the camp.

The counselor group, of necessity, changes each year. However, the group for the summer of 1939 was typical. That summer Newton boasted a director with a M.A. in social work, a psychiatrist, an assistant football coach at University of Kansas for athletics, a high school shop teacher for crafts, a cook with a B.S. in home economics, and a high school social science teacher for campfire programs. The dramatics coach, the ham radio and the photography experts, the hike leader, the librarian, and the music director were also college-trained.

Most of these staff counselors received their board, lodging, and salaries of twenty dollars for the five-week period of activity. The faith and enthusiasm of these twenty-odd persons of both sexes were not decreased by the small remuneration which they received.

★ *Coleman M. Herts was a social science teacher in the Central High School, Pueblo, Colorado, when he participated in the program of Camp Newton. At present he is a steel inspector for the Hunt Company in Pueblo. He is a member of Phi Delta Kappa.*

The camping program is divided into two fortnightly periods. For the first period, sixty boys, whose ages range from ten to thirteen years, are invited to attend. During the second period, a like-size group, ranging in age from thirteen to seventeen, are invited. These deserving boys are chosen very carefully because the philosophy of the camp is based upon a long-range view. The services of Denver's welfare department, public school system, Community Chest, and Grace Community Center are integrated to assure the success of this long-term program.

Each boy arrives in camp with the blessings of a welfare worker, and has an interview with his prospective counselor, an examination by the camp physician, and the prospect of a follow-through upon his problems which the camp staff may discover during his visit, by his teachers in public school the following semester. His health and progress in skills and sociability are carefully recorded and studied by the counselor, who has only seven charges in all. The boy and his counselor invariably become pals because they eat at the same table, sleep in the same cabin or tent, and work and play together each day.

Although each Newtonite is a "problem" child, as measured from economic, delinquent, or mental standards, the spirit and activities of the camp are definitely democratic.

Everyone tries to live up to the same rules. The daily chores, such as ice hauling, dish washing, potato peeling, garbage dumping, etc., are so distributed that each person, including the counselors, does his equal share. Every boy is free to enter into any or all of the camp activities, which include athletic games, handicrafts, photography, reading, cooking, gardening, and working.

Yes, just plain work. Most of the campers, coming from crowded quarters of the city, where loafing is habitual, jump at the opportunities to putter in the garden, to help the cook, to clear fields, to dig garbage pits, to repair machinery and buildings, etc. They are thrilled when they witness life in the natural "raw" as, for instance, when they assist at the birth of farm animals. They long for and get the chance to handle horses and dogs. They become staunch supporters of the "back to nature" movement. They "eat up" the books generously lent by the Denver Public Library. They are eager to improve their health habits, both physical and mental, and the doctor is ever popular.

And so "bad" boys—petty thieves, uncultured, some dressed in rags and castoffs—in the company of many "good" boys, whose only fault is poverty, live together creatively. Japanese, Chinese, Jews, Negroes, Italians, Mexicans, Irish, Germans harmoniously seek happiness and find it in an environment of purposeful activity.

The proof of their sincere appreciation for these many opportunities is shown by their desire to protect them by the process of self-restraint, in the form of self-government. Each cabin elects a representative to a camp-wide assembly. This assembly appoints one of its members "mayor" of Camp Newton. He, in turn, distributes to each assemblyman the responsibility of one phase of camp activity. All cases of misdemeanor are tried and punished by this assembly. The camp director sits in on these court sessions in order to check the severity of the punishments because boys are very critical of their faults and very severe in the judgments thereof.

The assembly also accomplishes a great amount of positive work. It is in a position to sense the pulse of the camp and to respond to its beat. The counselors and members work out all the purposeful and practical ideas originating in assembly.

But the most significant opportunity Newtonites have is the chance to be self-reliant. The parents of these boys are charged nothing to send their boys to camp. However, the boys may work and "pay" their own way. For every hour spent in volunteer employment about the camp, a boy is given credit at the rate of fifteen cents an hour. He may use this credit to buy wood, leather, and camera supplies and a limited amount of candy. At the end of the camping period, any credit a boy has left is paid off by means of camp shares. For every dollar's worth of credit, a Newtonite receives one share of stock in the ownership of Camp Newton. These certificates of ownership, which are signed by Reverend Wahlberg and the camp director, are presented in befitting ceremony at the final assembly of the entire group. Thus, for the first time in their lives, many boys feel the genuine and soul-restoring satisfaction of ownership and accomplishment.

Camp Newton opens its fourth season this coming June. In this period of world-wide doubt and stress, its story re-inspires us, as well as the beneficiaries of its hospitality, with faith in the practicability and worthwhileness of the Way of Democracy.

Single Salary Schedule

Application of a single salary schedule plan, involving removal of differences of salary on the basis of level of school taught, sex, and race, is advocated by the N. E. A. Committee on Equal Opportunities of which R. L. Hunt, State College, New Mexico, is chairman.

The chief reason for differences of salaries based upon the level of grade or school taught seems to be the false assumption that the high school teacher needs more training than the elementary teacher. There is also discrimination between the urban and rural teacher. The urban teacher, on the average, has had experience of 14 years, 4.2 years of college training, and gets a salary of $1900 compared to the rural teacher's 7 years of experience, 2.6 years college training, and $800 salary.

Salary differences based on sex can be justified by two arguments: (1) that men teachers have more family obligations and so require greater pay, and (2) that pupils, especially in the upper grades, need to come under the influence of men teachers, thereby requiring the attraction of men teachers through higher salaries. In 1939-40, only 12 of the 87 cities with population of over 100,000 made any distinction in the salary schedules for men and women.

In nine southern states in 1936-37, Negro teachers received only from 34.3 to 63.4 per cent of the salaries of white teachers. Preparation of a Negro teacher generally is less than that of a white teacher, but this doesn't account for the great differences in salaries.

The committee urges that publicity be given to inequalities in salary schedules in each state and that the cooperation of other agencies be enlisted in putting into effect a remedial program.

We Produce Men and Mechanics

By EDWARD C. ESTABROOKE

I RECENTLY READ an article in a national magazine entitled "Let's Produce Men—Not Mechanics." It is one of the most challenging I have ever seen. Challenging, I say, because it emphasizes again a weakness of which we in the vocational field are well aware—our inability to interpret vocational education to the American public as adequately as we would like.

The very title of the article, "Let's Produce Men —Not Mechanics," provides tangible evidence that the author and undoubtedly many other educators, as well as laymen, firmly believe that the vocational schools of America are turning out mechanics who can earn a good living but who haven't learned how to live.

Such an evaluation of the human products of our vocational schools by those who are not fully acquainted with them is not surprising. They have heard much lately of vocational education for national defense, and their minds turn naturally to the urgent training of machinists, welders, sheet metal workers, electricians, auto mechanics and other craftsmen essential to defense industries. They think of the specialized courses in the mechanical trades that are being offered in many of our vocational schools. This vocational program for national defense is an emergency type of training provided for adults only. Every trainee must be at least eighteen years of age by the time the training period is completed. Applicants are selected, not from the vocational schools, but from industry and from the public employment office registers.

They are trained as quickly as possible for jobs essential to the National Defense program. The vocational schools must produce mechanics from among these men—men who beg for training they want and need in order to fill industrial jobs. The necessity for specialized preparation in the present defense situation confines the instruction in most cases to the purely mechanical or manipulative phases of industrial work. There is no time to worry about producing men who may be taught to appreciate poetry, to comprehend the worth and dignity of life, or to use their leisure time more profitably. This is an emergency.

★ *Edward C. Estabrooke is Director of Vocational Education, Bradford, Pennsylvania, High School. He is a member of Phi Delta Kappa.*

During the past summer we conducted such a program in our vocational school in Bradford, Pennsylvania. Auto mechanics, electricians, electric arc welders, oxyacetylene welders and machinists worked eight hours each day regaining lost skills and developing new ones. The men ranged in age from eighteen to forty-five years. Many were high school graduates; some had previous trade experience; others were assigned for training from W.P.A. rolls. All had one idea in mind —to acquire skill—enough skill to secure a job in the rapidly expanding defense industries. They wanted economic security, which meant mechanical skill and enough self-confidence to sell it.

In defense training we produce mechanics because they are needed and we are prepared to do the job. But wait. Let us consider the men who are produced. What effect does the acquisition of skill—the ability to do a constructive piece of work, have on these men, particularly those who have been out of a job for some time? Here is a point worth mentioning! As I interviewed the unemployed applicants, I sensed a dejected attitude, a feeling of inferiority in many of the men. After the first week or two of training a marked improvement in outlook and morale became evident. The men arrived at school earlier, hurried to set up their machines and apparatus, forgot about taking that five minutes off for an outside smoke, cut their lunch period short. They worked like Trojans. Why? A spark of encouragement had been kindled, a feeling of accomplishment restored, lost confidence rebuilt. Before the six weeks' training period ended nearly one-fifth of the trainees had been taken by industry. On the last day of school we gathered the men together for a short commencement program—and the

word "commencement" really meant something to them. It marked the beginning of a new era for many of the men. They had something to sell —skill; they had something else just as valuable—confidence—a combination hard to beat. At the close of the program I asked the men if they wished to say anything before we parted. One man rose to his feet and said, "I am forty-five years old. I finished the fifth grade in school—never had a chance to get more education until this summer. I am sorry this course is ended because I have learned much and made many friends. I appreciate all that has been done for us men. I will not forget. Thank you." A short speech—a rather homely one, but full of sincerity and feeling that meant much to me and to the instructors assembled there that day. This man and seventy per cent of the entire group are working today. I frequently see some of them in local industries and in our evening trade extension classes, and I wonder. Have we produced only mechanics or have we somehow helped to produce better men as well? I sincerely believe that we have done both.

Let us not confuse the comparatively short defense training course with the all-day vocational programs conducted throughout the country for the youth of high-school age. For purposes of this discussion the term "vocational" is used to mean "vocational industrial," that is vocational education dealing with the trades and industries. Whereas in defense courses our primary responsibility is to train mechanics, the main objective of day vocational schools is to produce men and mechanics. The majority of these schools in America are much the same in character because they operate under the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen Laws, passed by the Congress of the United States. I would like to use our Bradford Vocational School as an example, and explain how we attempt to produce men and mechanics. Let's first consider some of the fundamental aims or objectives of vocational education as it is carried on here.

1. To help boys to become employable—to acquaint them with the major vocational processes in the trade so that they may be apt learners on the job and be able to adjust themselves to varying conditions and requirements in the occupational field of their choice.

2. To provide a broad comprehensive training in the trade field rather than to emphasize any specialized phase of trade work.

3. To develop proper work habits and attitudes toward work—accuracy, neatness, safety, industry, etc.

4. To develop qualities of initiative, dependability, honesty, cooperation, and others that are essential to success in any position.

5. To develop qualities of leadership in boys who are capable of becoming the leaders of tomorrow.

6. To develop problem solving ability—the ability to think logically, to analyze carefully, and to solve problems as they arise.

7. To develop a knowledge of related and academic subjects and an appreciation of the importance of these subjects to the industrial and cultural life of the worker.

8. To provide a knowledge of the kind of training necessary for advancement in the field, and of where and how to obtain that training.

9. To develop a desire in students to continue learning throughout life.

10. To help students make profitable use of leisure time.

11. To confirm the vocational choice of each student —to assist them in finding their proper places, to discover whether or not their physical and mental abilities are such that they will enjoy their work and be able to make a success in it.

12. To place graduates in jobs and follow them up to assist them in "making good" as workers and citizens.

Do these objectives stress the skill angle of vocational training? Only the first two points make any mention of it! In the first place we can't turn out completely skilled mechanics in a three-year course. Ask any master auto mechanic, electrician, or machinist how long it took him to get that way. Three years is not time enough! In the second place, we wouldn't want to produce expert mechanics even if we could—unless they had many other qualities to accompany their skill. To what extent is skill developed? Let's listen to a vocational graduate who is being interviewed by a machine shop superintendent about a job. The boy is talking: "I have spent 15 hours a week in the machine shop of our vocational school for three years—a total of 1620 hours. During this time I have learned the names, uses, and principles of the various hand and machine tools in the shop. I can set up and operate a lathe, shaper, milling machine, drill-press, grinder, and other machines. You won't have to spend your time and money teaching me the many fundamentals of machine shop practice. I am not a skilled machinist now, but I can become skilled and productive in your plant with some additional practice." If we can

develop in students enough skill for them to get a foothold in industry, our skill aim is fulfilled. Our major job is to produce men.

The State Plan for Vocational Education in Pennsylvania provides that fifty per cent of the total instructional time shall be devoted to practical shop work, approximately thirty per cent to related work, and twenty per cent to general education subjects.

Let's take the lid off the vocational program and find out how it produces men. First, the shops. It is here where a boy gets acquainted with human beings and discovers that he himself is one of them. He learns that tolerance, courtesy, honesty, and cooperation are qualities more valuable than skill alone. In the shops a boy learns to share. Sometimes he works alone and frequently with other boys on group projects. "Is it fair," he asks himself, "to turn in dull or dirty tools or mistreat my machine? Other boys must use them too, and I'll need them some time again myself." He develops a respect for property and acquires a real sense of values. He learns that the safe way of doing things is the only way, not only in the shop but on the highway and in the home. The safety program helps him to develop a safety consciousness that carries over throughout life. He finds that accuracy and neatness pay, that dependability, initiative, and other such qualities must be developed to succeed anywhere. He confronts situations which improve his ability to think clearly, to use good judgment, to solve his own problems. He takes part in the student personnel organization—becomes clean-up man, safety supervisor, and shop foreman. His leadership ability is tested here. He does his best because the outstanding foreman from each shop is selected as guest of the Bradford Foremen's Club at its monthly dinner meeting at the Y.M.C.A. The boy wants to rub elbows with the foreman from local industries, to introduce himself to them, to tell what goes on in his own school shop, and to learn about the problems foremen have. It is in the shop where a boy learns to give and take, to be logical and sympathetic and broad-minded; where he is taught to live serenely and happily and charitably. It is here where both head and hands are used—with emphasis on the head, where real life situations make learning purposeful, where opportunities for self-expression abound, where personality, character, and an understanding of one's responsibility for social well-being are developed.

What about the other fifty per cent of the vocational program—the related and academic phases? The related subjects (mathematics, science, and drawing) are so called because of their close relationship to most trade processes.

Let's take related mathematics. The boys review fractions, decimals, percentage, ratio and proportion, and other fundamentals of arithmetic. They study algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, and discover that mathematics isn't a vague, difficult subject when applied to practical trade problems. The presentation of mathematics, not only as an exercise in "higher mental gymnastics," but as an invaluable aid to the craftman's work, makes sense to the students. Many boys for the first time learn to like mathematics because they see how it is applied and used in a practical manner.

Related science instruction covers the mechanics of solids and fluids, sound, light, heat, magnetism, and electricity, and other principles of physics as well as chemistry. The laws and principles, wherever possible, are applied to tools, machines, and processes represented in the vocational shops. There is one important difference between the related and the college preparatory course in physics and chemistry. In related science the instruction is more closely correlated with life situations. Vocational boys know why these subjects should be mastered. They see the subjects actually applied to their daily work. Science makes sense under these conditions.

Mechanical drawing is the third related subject and ranks in importance with the other two. It is the language which expresses and records the ideas and information used in most trades and industries. Here the boys learn to know the alphabet, the grammar, and composition, and they become familiar with the idioms and accepted conventions and abbreviations. They learn how to make and interpret drawings. Here skills are developed—yes, but so is a lasting appreciation of neatness, accuracy, and good design.

Mathematics, science, and drawing have long been conventional academic subjects. I studied them in my college preparatory course in high school. At that time they seemed to be just subjects I had to pass in order to meet college entrance requirements. Truthfully, some of the information learned was put on the shelf and soon for-

gotten. Why? Because theories were not applied to practice. Vocational boys who study these subjects as related to their fields of work have a purpose in learning. Motivating factors are present, and motivation is a powerful stimulus to learning in any educational situation.

The academic subjects in the vocational curriculum are considered just as fundamental to the adequate preparation of a boy as the shop and related work. We feel that the vocational student needs as rich a background in cultural studies as does the college-bound pupil, and perhaps more so, as his formal education usually terminates sooner. Our boys take three years of academic English along with other boys and girls in the high school. They study poems and plays and essays. They learn to know and appreciate the famous literature of the past and of the present—not from a vocational but from a cultural standpoint.

All vocational students take a year's course in American History. They study the great movements in the development of our country, their purposes, and contributions to America as we know it today. They learn, as all men should, that it is wise to look back to keep from losing their way; to look ahead to keep from stumbling. A knowledge of the colonial period, the struggle for independence, the constitution, the rise of the industrial system, national growth and world politics, democracy, and the responsibilities of individuals in a democracy helps boys to contribute much more than mere mechanical skill to their fellow men.

We have one more course in the vocational curriculum. It is called Industrial History and is given five hours each week to all sophomores. One of the course objectives is to develop a knowledge of the history and present status of American industries. But this is by no means the only aim. We believe that in order to further broaden the outlook and the preparation of vocational boys for their job of living we should provide as wide a range of experiences as possible in school. For this reason occupations in various industries are described, qualifications of workers discussed, opportunities for graduates pointed out. Boys write letters to leading industrial concerns requesting information. They do research work in the school and shop libraries, and give committee and individual reports on their findings. One entire period each week is devoted to five- or ten-minute talks. So far this year each boy has given at least two speeches before his class. Topics of every description have been presented: "What We Do in Electric Shop," "Chicken Raising as a Hobby," "Democracy on the March," etc. Their public speaking ability is improving rapidly. The boys realize the importance of being able to express their ideas adequately, the value of being able to conduct a meeting, to give directions clearly, and to carry on an intelligent conversation. Stress is laid on good written and spoken English, and on correct spelling. Panel discussions are held on employer-employee relations, economic problems, international relations, democracy, and other life topics. Students are urged to read the newspapers, periodicals, and trade journals regularly. Visual aids are used extensively to provide desirable vicarious experiences.

Is this type of education narrow in scope? Does it produce only mechanics or is there a remote possibility that vocational graduates will leave school with some conception of how to live as well as how to work? It is true that we have many wonderful machines in American today. I do not believe that they can run away with our nation as long as we in vocational education continue to produce men and mechanics.

American Association of School Administrators

THE origin of the American Association of School Administrators is discussed in an article "To Form a More Perfect Union," in the February issue of the *Journal of the N.E.A.*

Amidst the news concerning the problems of peace in the United States in 1865 was the announcement in Horace Greeley's *New York Daily Tribune* that the National Teachers' Association would assemble in convention at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. This meeting was the birthplace of the United States Office of Education and of an organization long known as the Department of Superintendence, but now called the American Association of School Administrators. A few months later a bill to create the National Bureau of Education, based on the recommendations of the Association, was introduced in Congress. A special meeting of state and city superintendents had been called during the sessions of the convention, and it was decided to hold a meeting in February, 1866, at Washington to form a national association of school superintendents.

Teacher-Student Planning Works!

By BENJAMIN H. CULLEY

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TEACHER-STUDENT cooperative planning of school activities is much discussed but is all too rarely realized in practice. Eagle Rock High School believes that its philosophy of education calls for cooperative effort on the part of both teachers and students, and it is thus that the idea for the Assembly-Calendar Committee gained momentum and finally resulted in a serious and successful attempt at teacher-student cooperative planning.

From the first days of the experiment, Eagle Rock High School has held that education is one continuous process of growth wherein the pattern of the whole, with all its related factors rather than the factors themselves, is important. Its point of approach is with the individual, that he may so discover his own needs and interests and so direct his development that he shall find his place in the social structure and make his contribution to the general good. Its goal is, therefore, social and is concerned with the social order that shall result when those who comprise it possess both the desire and the capacity for abundant living. Since we are Americans, this implies all that is involved in the "democratic way of life."

With the belief that we "learn by doing" and that growth, to be permanent, is best achieved through experience, the procedure of the educational process is as follows:

1. The analysis, by each individual, of his own maturation level of needs and interests in accordance with the best obtainable standards of social relationships
2. The defining of possible goals on the basis of these needs and interests
3. The participation in experiences that offer opportunity for growth toward the desirable goals

The Assembly-Calendar Committee program was a logical outgrowth of attempts to put these procedures into practice.

Many school administrators feel, and justly so, that the Assembly Program is a very important factor in building school morale. It is not the intent of the author to enumerate the many pros and cons of such programs, but to present a type of organization for handling this phase of school life as efficiently and democratically as possible.

In the fall of 1939, the author was asked to supervise the assembly program group of the school. With little or no previous experience in the field, he first considered how most effectively to achieve student-teacher cooperation in planning such an important phase of the school's curriculum. The organization started with the appointment by the student body president of a student commissioner of assembly programs. This student and the author, after several conferences, decided to select a committee of seven student and several faculty members. Student representatives included the commissioner, representatives from the art, music, and publicity departments, together with three students chosen at large from the senior high school student body.

Faculty members included the sponsor, four teachers in charge of the school calendar, stage art and design, stage mechanics and sound, and ushers, the drama and public speaking instructor, and the musical organizations teacher. These faculty members have remained somewhat the same through the past year and a half; of necessity the student personnel changes each semester, except that the commissioner is selected from the student group of the previous semester which has served at least one term on the committee.

At the first of every semester, this committee of fourteen meets with the assembly chairmen from all of the organizations in the school which wish to put on programs during the year. At this time, the procedure for requesting assembly time and other details of presentation are discussed with

these representatives. It has been advantageous to thus "pave the way" for planning the entire semester's program so that members of each group have a definite idea of what is expected of them should they desire assembly time.

The first regular meeting of the semester is usually two hours long and is devoted to outlining the major events of the coming term. These large items include the prom, memorial assemblies, athletic events, and any other large-scale group activities which are more or less predetermined. Each member of the committee is provided with a calendar for his personal use on which he notes these and subsequent dates as determined at regular meetings. Preliminary to this calendar meeting, mimeographed blanks are distributed throughout the school to all teachers who might be planning some event during the semester which should receive immediate consideration for a place on the calendar. These are carefully gone over by the commissioner and sponsor and arranged in order of importance before being considered by the committee. After this preliminary meeting, constant revisions and additions are made at the regular weekly meetings of the group, which occur on Monday during a thirty-five minute Activity Period in the middle of the school day. Special meetings are called from time to time when the occasion demands.

There are two major phases to the work of this Assembly-Calendar Committee. The first of these is the planning of athletic rallies in conjunction with the school yell leaders and coaches, arranging the regular memorial assemblies, such as Armistice Day, etc., providing a certain number of general cultural programs, allowing time for a few informational periods when general student body regulations and provisions are discussed, and finally designating some assemblies as "morale building," i.e., community sings, pep talks, etc. These are all over and above the usual pay programs which are contracted for in advance through a National Assembly group on a six per year basis. The planning of these programs provides the group with the major part of its discussion.

One of the more important features of the plan is the procedure for requesting assembly time. The commissioner and sponsor, before the first meeting, work out an Assembly Blank which contains a place for the date, location of program, and listing of program items, and provides for signatures of some twelve persons who might be in any way connected with the presentation. These include persons responsible for the calendar, stage, and flower arrangements from the garden, the cafeteria manager, sound crew, projection operator, ushers, ticket-printing and publicity departments, person sponsoring the activity, commissioner of assemblies, and the principal. In this fashion, all having any connection with the production are notified in routine fashion and slip-ups are becoming rare.

After securing the blank, the persons or group requesting the date appear before the committee and outline, in general, their plan. If it is approved, a tentative date is granted and a time set for a preview of the program. At this preview, usually two members of the committee, one faculty and one student, pass judgment and make suggestions. Their report is returned to the committee and a final date is set. Since the committee is held responsible for all assembly programs, it reserves the right to change the proposed presentation if advisable.

A feature of the Assembly-Calendar Committee of which the school is justly proud is the democratic manner in which the decisions are made in meeting. Each person on the group has one vote and faculty are limited to the same regulations as the students. The chairman of the group is the commissioner, who presides at all meetings. Each member is permitted to state his views fully before a final vote is taken. A remarkable feature of the balloting through an eighteen-month period is that there has never been a vote of faculty *versus* students.

Some of the incidents which reveal this democratic spirit are of especial interest. The graduating class of the school has usually been permitted to have a Senior Class Day at which time they present a program for the student body. The summer class appointed a committee to work out such a program and present it to the Assembly Committee. The faculty representatives had some idea of what type of program was proposed and went to the meeting violently opposed to it. Before they had a chance to state their position, the student group had vehemently attacked the plan. By the

time the incident was closed, the senior group had realized its mistake and the faculty group was amazed to know that the student members of the committee had forced this conclusion. The entire result was highly satisfactory in that the group completely revised the program and no charges were ever made that the faculty "killed" student initiative, a cry which one frequently hears when the faculty steps into a difficult situation.

At another time, the sponsor and another faculty member had advance information about a program to be requested. The sponsor called in the commissioner and after discussion it was decided to "stack the vote" ahead of time and merely to go through the formality of allowing a presentation to the committee. At the meeting, the group requesting the program presented its material and the discussion began. The sponsor and commissioner immediately realized that the rest of the group more or less favored the plan as presented and, although they had planned to have the whole thing killed, they finally approved the proposed program with but few modifications. As one faculty person commented, "You don't realize how wrong you can sometimes be until you get into a group such as this and thrash the whole thing out from top to bottom. It has opened my eyes and made me more tolerant of student opinion."

A final incident, showing the student point of view, seems worthy of mention. The Girls' League Assembly Chairman brought to the group a plan for a musical assembly featuring the broadcasting orchestra from a neighboring junior college, which group could appear in the mornings only. The committee decided that, because of numerous necessary interruptions which must come during the morning hours throughout the school year, such a program would be inadvisable. The Girls' League representative took this decision back to her group with the comment that, while she had had her heart set on such a program, she did not feel in the least aggrieved about the refusal because of the democratic way in which teacher-pupil comment had been made in her presence during the discussion. She added that she realized the impracticability of the idea after a full discussion and that the decision was the only fair and intelligent one.

Such incidents as these make the author feel that the group has made a beginning in the right direction. Many features need revision and others will in the long view be eliminated, but the essential items are there. With the basic philosophy as stated in the first few paragraphs as the guiding light, the Assembly-Calendar Committee feels that a propitious start has been made in the elusive teacher-student cooperative planning of educational experiences.

I Am a Teacher

I have the grandest profession in the world! When speaking about it to others I'll clothe myself in that splendid cloak; I'll pull it around me; draw myself up to my full height, and look anyone squarely in the eye and say, "I am a teacher."

I am not just a teacher; I am not only a teacher, only a high-school teacher, just an elementary, just a junior high school teacher, or just a college teacher. I am an active citizen aware of many of the problems of our people and enthusiastically participating in life's challenging appeals. I must expect criticism when I act, but my reaction to it will indicate physical, mental and spiritual maturity. I am a teacher.

I Build Character

I accept the challenge. Teaching and learning cannot be measured in terms of the tax dollar nor the product obtained. There is no statistical symbol to express a character index—which means there are no fractions and no negative numbers. I can teach the whole child. I am a teacher.

I am an active member of my teacher organizations. I belong to the local, state, and national hook-up of professional effort to transmit to posterity the American way of life. This is not selfish, because leaders with vision are acting in the interests of the boys and girls and the men and women of America.

I believe in the ideals of the profession as exemplified by our members and I will not let them be obscured by petty critics. I am convinced that a unified group has greater force than any individual action can attain; a greater opportunity to interpret to the public our mutual aims and I am confident that a new spread of understanding will make fruitful these mutual endeavors.

I will not leave this joyous work entirely to my organizations, because both in and out of the classroom I will continue to be an educator. I am a teacher.—Paul S. Chance, Coordinator of Social Sciences, University of Southern California and Los Angeles City Schools, member of Alpha Epsilon campus chapter, Phi Delta Kappa, in *Sierra Educational News*, Feb., 1941.

Problems of the School Patrol

By A. R. LAUER

SECTION I

Introduction. Although public school safety patrols have existed for more than twenty-five years, changing conditions in the schools, as well as in education generally, have thrown new light on the problem. From slightly over 2,000,000 cars in 1914, there has been a gradual increase to over 30,000,000 in 1940.[36] This increase has reemphasized the need for increased protection to school children. With growth in complexity of the motor vehicle problem, there has come a need for different and more mature ways of handling the traffic situation. Many have felt that the school patrol members should be chosen at the high school level. Others have found that the appeal to young people at the higher level must be on a different basis. In still other quarters the difficulty of interesting high school pupils in the patrol has been noted and in general there has been no widespread development in this direction. The present study was made to obtain facts which might help orient educators with reference to the problem.

Scope of the study. The subject under discussion has wide ramifications and to touch on all aspects of safety patrols would be an almost endless task. In order to delimit the scope, two phases were chosen, viz.: (1) The literature was reviewed to bring out the practices which have been more or less crystallized in the past. (2) A brief survey was made of current thought regarding the school patrol as it is found today. The second section is a résumé of a survey in which two groups of persons were asked to answer a list of questions relating to school patrols and to give other evaluations which might occur to them. The persons solicited were: (1) authorities in the field of safety education and (2) school administrators who are facing the problem today.

In general the consensus of opinion identifies three camps: (a) those who think the patrol is a very necessary part of the school program; (b) those who are indifferent; and (c) those who are very much opposed to the patrol. The present evaluation will consist essentially of an examination of the basic premises and assumptions and the arguments presented. A final solution must await further experiments with patrols, experiments set up to determine the changes in attitudes of the patrol, as well as of school children in general due to the functioning of the patrol, and the effect on teachers as well as motorists.

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Growth of the patrol. Begun in 1914 at Newark, New Jersey, where it has been continued to the present day, there are today about 300,000 school safety patrols in the United States. The school patrol began to develop rapidly about 1920 and has become more popular throughout the United States each year. In the periodical indexes, "junior police" is the term used to designate patrols. However, some administrators maintain that the police have no place in the picture. In fact, some feel that the school should have exclusive charge and sponsorship of the patrol. Others seem to think joint sponsorship is desirable, as it motivates the children to do better work and distributes liability to others than school teachers, administrators, and school officials.

Sponsorship involving connection with any scheme of promotion is definitely on the black list. Sponsors who do not follow up and assist in supervising the work are not encouraged by the best-informed administrators. There are various other "pro" and "con" arguments based upon the immaturity of the patrol member, the time taken from studies, danger to the patrol, teacher and school liability, and others. Despite these points of difference in thought, the school patrol has spread and is now found in many hamlets throughout the United States.

Definite arguments for and against the patrol. A stock argument against the patrol is the liability assumed by school authorities. Harry R. Rosen-

field, Confidential Secretary to Commissioner Alberto C. Bonaschi of New York City, has ruled that teachers are liable for injuries to pupils.[17] While no mishaps have been reported and various rulings have been made by lower courts, he asserts, "in making assignments (to the patrol) the principal is acting in a personal capacity and becomes personally liable for any accidents that may occur." While laws may be passed legalizing the patrol, he contends that negligence can still be used as the basis for suit, and a laymen's jury will ultimately have to decide when negligence has been in evidence. Statutes making boards of education exempt still do not protect the individual teacher.

A precedent for junior peace officers. Precedent for a more aggressive junior police type of patrol has been set by Sheriff Eugene Biscailuz of Hollywood, California.[23] He has trained a group of boys, in what was once a rowdy district, to act as deputies. While they carry no guns or weapons, their methods have proved most effective in reducing neighborhood disturbances.

William A. Sears, Coordinator of Safety for the Chicago Public Schools has had similar success with high school rowdies who were put in charge of the patrol activities of one school. They became very law-abiding boys after a short period of responsibility and have been an affective agent in reducing accidents to children in the district.

Patrol reduces accidents in Flint. At Flint, Michigan, Sergeant R. C. Demaroff has done a fine piece of work with school patrols.[1] The police department supervises and sponsors the patrol. From 1927 to 1939 fatalities were reduced 60 per cent and accidents about 10 per cent. It is estimated that the patrol saves the city $228,000 a year in policemen's salaries and expenses—one man for each of 114 intersections in Flint. At one intersection a check-up showed that the presence of patrol members decreased the average speed by about 10 miles an hour.

A twelve-year no-accident record. In Washington, D. C., accidents were reduced 33 per cent[2]; one patrol member is used for each 40 pupils. Syracuse began a school patrol in 1918[21] and during a 12-year period no traffic accident occurred at about 400 intersections, where 30,000 school children pass four times daily. School fatalities have dropped from 13 to 2 a year. The two fatalities occurred during the final year of their report, after school hours. At first, Syracuse had trouble enlisting high school boys for patrol duty. After putting it on a school-wide, local civil service basis, there was an immediate clamor to get into the patrol. Each member is allowed to serve but 100 hours, whereupon a certificate is awarded. The idea is recommended to other schools.

Kansas boasts a girls' patrol. At Hutchinson, Kansas, a girls' patrol has been organized at the girls' request.[12] They wear arm bands and perform minor service around the building, but are not used primarily to direct student traffic on the street. School authorities believe that patrols train girls for home service, to take responsibility, and to develop personality traits in general.

Tulsa, Oklahoma, has one school of 744 pupils and a very efficient supervision of the patrol.[18] The police cooperate with the school officials to keep the patrol active. The officials feel it aids discipline and at the same time gives a legitimate outlet for activity. The school furnishes the belts and all necessary equipment.

At Stevens Point, Wisconsin, the patrols have been sponsored by the school and the police department. They are called the *police cadets* and the plan seems to be working out very satisfactorily at the high school level. Students who violate or disregard directions given by the cadets are reported to the school authorities. The faculty advisor reports complete satisfaction with the plan. The term cadet carries military implications and might be very appropriate as a motivating device for high school boys whose older brothers may soon be wearing the uniform.

Poorly-supervised patrols bad. It does not follow that, because one dose of medicine is good, two doses are better. Perhaps a universal adoption of the school safety patrol would be detrimental, but well-chosen locations might profit a great deal from use of the patrol. The writer is reminded of an observation made recently. Upon approaching a rural grade school, about 3:30 in the afternoon, a small boy was seen on the shoulder of the road. His appearance was that of a typical hitchhiker. Upon coming closer it became apparent that the boy was intended to be a school safety patrol member. Ordinary clothes, an old grayish white

belt, and a bewildered look marked the youngster as a new recruit, or in any case a very mediocre veteran of the order. Children wandered out over the highway without paying any apparent attention at all to their protector. It was a mere formality and a poor one at that.

Integration of safety activities. In many communities the school safety patrol is closely associated with the junior safety council. It thus becomes an integral part of the safety program of a school. Patrol members are taught courtesy and carefulness in handling pupils. The latter are taught to walk safely and obey rules and traffic regulations. Patrols, according to accepted regulations, are not allowed to hold anything in their hands and are instructed to stay on the curb and direct pedestrian traffic only. In a few places the patrol regulates vehicle traffic but in most cases the standard regulations are followed.

Substitutes for patrol. At Ames, Iowa, the school authorities and police have been opposed to the patrol because of liability assumed. Consequently, stop signs are placed in the middle of the street by each school's janitor and, at the worst crossings, the latter stays until all children have crossed. At Des Moines, Iowa, the City Engineer, Harry Stedman, has put up school signs which turn parallel with the street when the buildings are vacated. These signs can be locked into position by the janitor. The plan seems worthy of consideration, with or without a patrol. There is no reason to slow down traffic at a school building during vacation or when there are no children about. Iowa has a state law reducing speed in school zones to 20 m.p.h. when posted. On rural highways this irks the driver, when school is closed for three months of the year. It develops careless habits on the part of motorists which continue when schools are in session.

Fargo votes against the patrol. Some negative reactions[16] were noted from the literature of the last decade. At Fargo, North Dakota, the Board of Education rejected a suggestion by the Junior Chamber of Commerce that a patrol be organized, on two premises: (1) There is too much danger in the possibility of accidents or harm to the personal health of patrol members, due to extremely cold weather; (2) The "psychology" of telling children they must do thus and so, and of policing them to do it was labelled as detrimental. It was held that a teacher's suggestion would be much more powerful than any the patrol might give, and that children must learn to do things because it is the best way rather than because of orders given by older students.

As an alternate plan for protecting children, the school bought portable iron stop signs with heavy bases and placed them in the middle of the streets. The signs are rolled off the streets when children are not using the crossings on the way to and from school. Twelve of these signs were purchased for about $9 each. The objections brought up by this board of education seem to be reasonable in the light of weather conditions. Parenthetically, we can hardly subscribe to the inferred doctrine that children must learn directly, rather than vicariously.

Section II

Survey made of recent views. To bring the various views on the school patrol strictly up to date, the writer sent a questionnaire to forty educators and specialists in the field to secure a summary of current thought on the safety patrol in particular communities. Replies from thirty-five educators were quite valuable. The results are presented herewith, largely in tabular form.

The philosophy of the patrol. The following assumptions or postulates seem to stand out among the various specific comments offered in support of the school boy patrol. Most of them are probably tenable in certain respects:

1. Conservation of life is a goal worthy of slight risks on the part of a select few.
2. Supervision of school children will help mold desirable habits.
3. Older children respect the wishes of younger ones, particularly when it is made a part of their duty and inflates their ego to do so.
4. Younger children look to older boys and girls for suggestions from which to fashion their own behavior.
5. Certain tasks can be performed as well by intellectually immature as by intellectually mature individuals.
6. Education is best accomplished by a functional approach.

In other words it may be stated (1) that it is desirable to develop leadership, (2) that children are capable of performing patrol duties when properly trained and supervised, and (3) that the benefits to be derived more than offset the hazards introduced. It would be easy to elaborate these prem-

ises in "armchair" fashion but we prefer to present views which have been developed through several years' experience by leading educators and to evaluate the comments thus gleaned.

Analysis of responses to questions. Replies to the list of questions were carefully analyzed and the points covered are listed in the following tables. The headings are self-explanatory. Table I concerns responses to certain questions which were of the two-response objective type. Abbreviated forms of the questions are given as an aid to the reader.

TABLE I

Question	*Yes*	*No*	*Doubtful*	*No Answer*
Are patrols common in your community?	20	8	1	1
Do school men favor patrols?	26	2	2	0
Does sponsorship create attitudes for or against?	17	9	0	5
Does the patrol have educational value?	26	0	1	1
Should the patrol be encouraged?	22	2	1	4
Are belts and uniforms essential?	24	1	0	4

Six persons felt that the patrol has the most value for older students and twenty-four felt that it has most value for younger ones.

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF GRADES FROM WHICH PATROL MEMBERS ARE DRAWN

V 5	VIII 21	XI 1
VI 18	IX 8	XII 1
VII 28	X 3	

TABLE III

CHIEF VALUE OF BELTS, UNIFORMS, AND PATROL EQUIPMENT

For identification	8
Motivates patrol	7
Recognition of leadership	5
Increases dignity of patrol	4
Increases respect for patrol	3
Gives authority to patrol	3
Protection from weather (coats, etc.)	2

TABLE IV

CHIEF ARGUMENT FOR THE SCHOOL PATROL

Protects young children	9
Develops responsibility	9
Cuts down school and traffic accidents	5
Vital part of safety education	4
Motivates students to be more careful	3
Educates pedestrians	2
Character building	2
Functional safety education	2
Building citizenship	2
Develops safety consciousness	2
Aid to teachers	2
Motivates drivers to be more careful	1
Prevents more serious types of trouble	1
Reaches and interests parents	1
Develops good habits and attitudes	1
Teaches initiative	1

TABLE V

CHIEF ARGUMENTS AGAINST PATROL

Patrol is too immature	6
Danger of patrol members being injured	5
None ever noted in our system	4
Weather bad for children on patrol	4
Patrol does not take work seriously	2
Full responsibility lies with school	2
Takes child's time from study	2
Duty of police to guard crossings	2
Too much emphasis on authority	2
Throws men out of work	1
Patrols are careless	1
Overemphasis on "badges," etc., takes away initiative	1
Unequal opportunity for leadership	1
Sponsorship belongs to school	1
Arrogance of patrol members	1
Just more work	1
No traffic near	1
Does not like name	1
Patrol often leaves signs out at wrong time	1
Try to direct traffic	1
Stand in street	1
Partisanship shown	1
Not respected by motorists	1
Encourages loafing on street	1
Too much responsibility	1
Does not teach self-reliance	1
Officious youngsters make patrol objectionable	1
Time required to serve is needed otherwise	1

TABLE VI

EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE PATROL*

Develops feeling of personal responsibility in pupils	7
Develops safety consciousness	5
Teaches children to watch for hazards	5
Makes good citizens and teaches law observance	5
Teaches children to walk safely	5
Cooperation and organized effort encouraged	5
Teaches safety to auto drivers	2
Teaches children rules of safety	2
Develops cooperation between school, parent, and community	2
Character builder	2
Members of patrol develop responsibility	2
Creates interest in other traffic matters	1
Helps teach children democracy in action	1
Develops courtesy	1
Disciplines and develops the careless	1
Motivates children—inspiration to patrol members	1
Learning in a functional way helps student	1
Develops safety habits	1
Educates future patrolmen	1
Teaches respect for authority	1
Provides practice for safety facts	1

* This category overlaps somewhat with that of Table IV.

The sponsors cited in order of frequency were: (1) schools, (2) American Automobile Association, (3) local police, (4) local safety councils, (5) parent-teacher associations, (6) school prin-

cipals or teachers, (7) Kiwanis Club, (8) American Legion, (9) state highway patrol, (10) local motor clubs, (11) chambers of commerce (12) N.Y.A. and W.P.A. groups.

The arguments in favor of outside sponsors may be summarized as falling under three headings: (1) motivates the work for youngsters, (2) makes motorists more cooperative, (3) divides the responsibility for the patrol with the community. It is generally agreed that the sponsor should be on hand to help supervise the patrol and that there should be no promotional work carried on in the name of the sponsor. Many schoolmen prefer to have the schools sponsor the patrol entirely, while others prefer local sponsors such as the police department, service and automobile clubs, and others who are locally interested.

The general consensus of opinion obtained from comments in letters, in addition to the information on the questionnaires, indicated that patrols should be more closely supervised by their sponsors. As they are now being handled, patrols are more successful at the junior high school levels and changes will need to be made to make the plan applicable at the high school level. The results obtained are most gratifying, as typified by a report from the Detroit schools where fatalities were reduced from 96 in 1918 to 42 in 1939. Practically no adverse criticism was made and one state reports it as "one of the best accepted safety programs ever sponsored in our state."

Regulation of the patrol. Regulations to standardize practices of school patrols were set up in 1936 by a joint committee from the National Safety Council, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the American Automobile Association, the National Education Association, and the United States Office of Education. An earlier set of regulations promulgated in 1930 was revised. The duties of the patrol are quite well defined in these regulations. A few of the basic principles are:

1. The patrol is not to direct motor vehicle traffic.
2. Patrol members are to stay on the curb, except when a car obstructs the way, in which case they are to move into the street not more than three paces or nine feet and return immediately to the curb.
3. They are *not* to escort children across the street except in unusual cases of special need.
4. If possible, there should be one patrol member on each side of the street.
5. Regulations for white Sam Browne belts are set up and patrol members are to wear them primarily for identification.
6. The patrol members are to carry no whistles, signals, or other devices in their hands.

Other points touched on by commentors. In most cases the patrol is selected on the basis of scholarship, deportment, and suitability for the job. The members are usually selected by the principal and often trained by the local police who supervise the work done by the boys. In many places they are sponsored by local service clubs, the motor clubs, the American Automobile Association, The American Legion, and the parent-teacher association. In a large number of cases they are sponsored by the schools themselves. In general school authorities feel that supervision is their prerogative since it has been ruled[19] that the school officials are liable for injury to children. There is no general agreement as to the sponsorship although it seems the schools are willing to share sponsorship in many places as it tends to divide the responsibility, at least from the layman's point of view.

In general, we may say that the consensus of opinion is favorable to the patrol, although there are some opposing reactions.[16] It seems there are no valid educational arguments against the patrol. For the most part objections relate to liability, time and effort involved, inadequate training and supervision of parol, to the type of sponsor, and similar grievances. Some states have legalized the patrol. Such laws usually absolve the school officials from liability and make it lawful for any child over ten to be appointed as a patrol member unless the parents object by written notice.

A recent survey made by the National Safety Council[28] showed that seventy per cent of those answering the questions thought the standard rules for junior high school pupils were suitable for high schools. These replies were consistent with the answers to a parallel question in which information was asked regarding patrol direction of vehicular traffic. Only about 27 per cent stated that the patrol should assist in handling motor vehicle traffic. Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey prohibit the patrol from directing traffic, by statute. Minnesota has a law legalizing the school patrol.[20] This state has had organized patrols since 1923.

Its leaders feel that accidents to children have been greatly reduced by use of the school patrol and report that no serious accidents have occurred where a properly supervised patrol was guarding the crossing.

The educational values named are miscellaneous and in all cases the tabular data given above was presented as nearly verbatim as was consistent with uniformity. The reader is thereby given the opportunity of reclassifying the points in any way he may see fit.

In conclusion we may say briefly:

1. The patrol seems to be able to stand on its own merit in the opinion of most educators who have tried it.
2. Objections raised are mostly on non-educational grounds.
3. The matter of sponsorship needs careful review and it seems that certain new regulations concerning it would be timely. This is particularly true at the high school level.
4. The values of a patrol seem to greatly outweigh its disadvantages.

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Public Opinion on Youth and Education

Overwhelming support of America's educational philosophy and aims was registered in a recent survey of American opinion on youth and education, which is summarized in the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association for November, 1940.

The American public, in general: (1) has a favorable point of view toward the present-day program of public education; (2) believes that the public school should offer fair and equal opportunities to all youth; (3) favors a special program for unemployed youth not in school; (4) is for freedom in teaching and learning; (5) will not be satisfied with a static educational program.

Educators should realize, however, that many citizens are apparently unaware of the objectives receiving major emphasis in the schools today, and that they lack specific information about school and public finance and federal aid.

The public appreciates the need for a part-time work and training program for unemployed non-school youth, and also believes that the school program should be realistic and should include opportunity for discussion of genuine problems, even though they may be controversial.

A portion of the public is skeptical as to the fairness of teachers in discussion and in their treatment of children from different economic groups. This is a problem for pre-service and in-service teacher education and for constructive educational interpretation and wise public relations.

More specific opinions were expressed as follows:

Education is not overemphasized today, according to 73 per cent of the population; 21 per cent disagree; 6 per cent had no opinion. The most favorable atti-

(Continued on page 240)

Nine Thousand Numbers in a Fish Bowl

By JOSEPH J. ROMODA

CITIZENS of rank and just plain John Citizens assembled last October in a Washington, D. C., auditorium in solemn conclave. The occasion was the first peacetime draft drawing. Before a new day began, the order of privilege of serving in the armed forces of the United States would be determined for from 16 to 17 millions of men, 21 to 36 years of age.

Sentiment, tradition, and the laws of chance were being integrated. The solemn and often-thought hope of active participants was that the draw be "fair." Most Americans remember the occasion in detail. There was the fish bowl, used first in the draft of World War I. The stirring spoon, the stirrer, the spirit, were likewise the same or reflections of that day of 20 odd years ago.

On the scientific and nonemotional side, mechanics had been set up. Numbers were made invisible by being placed in separate capsules. The capsules were to be shuffled and mixed constantly. Each number in order of draw was to be photographed so that no slip-up could occur following the draw.

The bowl itself seemed too small to permit effective shuffling. How well the numbers were mixed before being dropped into the bowl is a factor unknown to this writer. The fish bowl choice can probably be defended on sentimental grounds. From a scientific standpoint, it cannot be.

Publicity on the draw was excellent if a criterion of good publicity is availability of information to every interested man, woman, and child. Radio, the press, the telegraph were harnessed in the task of disseminating quickly, capably, and well, the proceedings on this historic occasion.

Such is the description of the conditions.

Let us then concern ourselves with the subject of chance and its relation to the drawing of the draft order numbers. The draw, it is to be remembered, was to be made in such fashion that every serial number was to have the same chance of being drawn. Some further assumptions beyond those already suggested might be:

1. If the draft drawing was to take place once or a thousand times again, the numbers probably would not be in the same order. The assumption is based on the number of possible combinations possible for 9,000 order numbers. This number can be mathematically computed. The 9,000 different serial numbers might have been drawn in billions and billions of different combinations. The approximate possible number of combinations is something like 33 followed by 31,680 zeros. What does that figure look like? If your handwriting is such that you write about six numbers to an inch, you would need to lay down a twelfth of a mile of paper, in order to get the figure written. That figure would be about once and a half as long as a football field. To emphasize this point in another way, a draw might be made every day for thousands and thousands of years and it would be theoretically possible that every list would differ somewhat from every other list.

2. A second assumption that is tenable mathematically is that, of each 1000 numbers drawn, about 500 should have serial numbers below 4500, and 500 have serial numbers over 4500. A further explanation of this assumption might be in order. If you flip a penny, it is certain to come up heads or tails, one or the other, barring of course the jester's possibility that it "might stand on edge." It should also be clear that the more times the coin was flipped, the greater the likelihood that the final sums of the heads would equal the final sums of the tails. Now, there are 9000 serial numbers and this is a sum large enough to expect reasonably that rules of probability would operate. In this case, such rules might mean that 500 of the first 1000 serial numbers drawn from the bowl should have had the value of 4500 or less; and 500 would have had the value of 4501 or more. Briefly put—in a good mix, each number should have had as much chance of being in the first half of the 9000 numbers picked (0-4500) from the fish bowl as it had of being in the last half (4501-

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9000). The chance of having an order number of 4501-plus or of one ranging from 1 to 4500 should be about 50-50.

3. Though there were 9000 serial numbers in the bowl, apparently less than 8000 had any meaning, since no local board had that many registrants. The extra thousand were used "to make sure." As a matter of fact, however, there must be very few local draft boards having order numbers much beyond 5000. This reasoning comes from the fact that since there are approximately 6500 local boards and approximately 17,000,000 registrants, the arithmetical average per board would be about 2615 (2615 × 6500 equals 17,000,000, approximately). Thus in a sense the master-draw at Washington meant little until reinterpreted by local boards. A local board having 2500 serial numbers is interested only in the relative position of each of the 2500 and not in the position of the other 6500 numbers. Thus, we account for two sets of order numbers, viz., one secured at the national draw which might be anywhere from 1 to 9000; the other being a reinterpretation in terms of local numbers, which in the case of the 2500 mentioned above would mean local order numbers running from 1 to 2500. It is the position in the latter that determines order of call.

4. If the holder of order number 4500 in the Washington draw were in a local board of 2500, it might be reasonable to assume that the chances were at least 50-50 that he would have a local order number of 1250 by the same reasoning as in assumption 2.

Now let us examine the data, and then let us consider them in terms of the assumptions. One nationally prominent radio commentator has said that there was some question as to whether Dame Chance had a good chance to operate. When an order number of 1000 suddenly shrinks to 40 on a local list of 2000 serial numbers, it would look as if such a holder might fairly ask, "How come?" Thousands of young men presumably are wondering the same thing. To the writer's knowledge, the typical explanation given so far is that "numbers exceeding the local board's number of registrants have to be scratched off and that accounts for the shrinkage." This does not explain, however, the terrific shrinkage indicated above from a national order number which has 11.1 per cent of the registrants (1000 is 11.1 per cent of 9000) below it to one having but 2 per cent in the local board below it. To help explain this, some tables have been prepared.*

TABLE I

PERCENTAGES OF SERIAL NUMBERS AT VARIOUS LEVELS HAVING ORDER NUMBERS ABOVE AND BELOW 4500

Serial Numbers	*Percentage of these serial numbers having order numbers*	
	Below 4500	*Above 4500*
1 – 500	37.6	62.4
1 – 1000	30.8	69.2
1 – 1500	28.6	71.4
1 – 2000	25.75	74.25
1 – 2500	25.12	74.88
1 – 3000	30.0	70.0
1 – 3500	33.34	66.66
1 – 4000	35.95	64.04
1 – 4500	38.34	61.65
1 – 5000	40.97	59.02
Theoretical percentage normally should be	50.00	50.00

Table I shows that low serial numbers drew more than an equal share of high order numbers. For example, of the serial numbers between 1–2500, three-fourths have order numbers over 4500, whereas chance would lead us to think that only half should have them above it.

The table might further imply that high serial numbers drew a disproportionate share of low order numbers. The most important thing about the table is that *the percentages are consistently lopsided in the same direction.*

Now, since, as has been discussed in assumption 3, a very small percentage of boards could possibly

TABLE II

A COMPARISON OF ORDER NUMBERS IN GROUPS OF 1000, WITH SERIAL NUMBERS FROM 1–4500

Order Numbers	*Number of serial numbers from 1–4500 in each consecutive 1000 order numbers*	
1 – 1000	264	Total 1725 cases
1001 – 2000	312	or
2001 – 3000	435	38.34%
3001 – 4000	450	(Should be closer to 50%)
(4001 – 4500)**	(264)	
(4501 – 5000)	(261)	
5001 – 6000	590	2774 cases
6001 – 7000	574	or
7001 – 8000	658	61.65%
8001 – 9000	691	(Should be closer to 50%)
Total	4499	

*Since all statistics were computed from data published in newspapers, a very slight error might be present in the statistics. The very few lost numbers that did not appear to be in the fish bowl were not considered.

**The fifth thousand is broken into equal parts to permit comparisons between 1–4500 and 4501–9000.

have more than 5000 registrants, a large share of the low order numbers drawn actually represented very few people. Thus, at its worst, the skewed distribution merely decreases the size of a large order number. That is to say that Johnny Jones may be called earlier than he expected to be on the basis of the Washington national draw.

Table II can be interpreted in many ways. Only 264 serial numbers between 1–4500 were among the first 1000 capsules drawn. Thus the chances turned out to be 26 out of 100 for getting a low (less than 4500) order number if you had a serial number of less than 1000. It is evident from looking at the table as a whole that about 62 out of every 100 numbers from 1–4500 were drawn in the last half of the draw (received order numbers over 4500). With such large numbers, a 50-50 proposition would normally be the chance expectation.

The practical implication is that it proved advantageous to hold low serial numbers (less than 4500) since the chances of getting high order numbers were much better than even. Now, since there was, among the 17,000,000 registrants, only a very small number having serial numbers over 4500, it should become even more obvious why so many high order numbers "shrank" to very low ones when local boards prepared local order numbers. You see, high serial numbers over 4500 which were held by very few of the 17,000,000 registrants, received the majority of the low order numbers. Local boards would, therefore, scratch off many more than half of the first 4500 order numbers. Thus the "shrinkage."

A further table (III) is attached at the end. It is a master table from which can be read the number of each group of 100 serial numbers below 5000 that were in the first, second, third . . . ninth thousand numbers drawn out of the fish bowl. From it the local order numbers can be approximated.

A brief summary at this point would include the following points:

1. Either due to lack of proper mixing or inability to mix; or to pure chance; or to a combination of factors, the distribution of order numbers was such that holders of low serial numbers had a better chance of getting high order numbers than vice versa. The consistency of data showing favoritism to low serial numbers lends support to a charge of "too-small fish bowl for good mixing."

2. Since the number of serial numbers over 4500 must be very small, if compared to the 17,000,000 reservoir, not many were adversely affected by the draw.

3. In most local boards, a high order number shrank far more than would be expected, normally, of course. The important thing to remember, however, is that the sequence in the local board determines order of call, and "shrinkage" in and by itself is not overly important. Relative position in the local lists is important.

4. There seems to be definite evidence of some kind of consistent or persistent error in the draw. For example, one might wonder from the data if low serial numbers were not poured into the bowl first, and if most of them did not remain near the bottom throughout. However, such a conditional statement must be modified immediately by suggesting other possibilities. It was pointed out early that a draw could be made daily for thousands and thousands of years and never come out the same way twice. Every list could differ from every other list. Just because the present draw seems to be peculiar, it is not implied that the peculiarity is not due to chance. It is possible for unlikely things to occur. People do get 13 spades in a bridge hand, though the occurrence, from a predictive standpoint, is very unusual. This draw may reemphasize the point that the mathematics of probability does permit of unusual things. Practical experience often bears this out.

In closing, let us direct attention to the fact that the draw at Washington was but one of many steps in the entire draft process. In each step, many chance factors operated. The first step permitting "chance" to operate was registration. It was by chance that a person was given a certain serial number and not some other. If re-registration occurred, probably very few (if any) persons would get the same serial number. Next, it was by merest chance that certain serial numbers were given to certain physically able, disabled, unhealthy, etc.; to married and single; to young men with and without dependents. Certainly, possible exemptions exist all along the line in the serial numbers in a chance fashion.

Furthermore, it was partially chance that certain local boards had a large number of registrants and others a smaller number. It is likewise chance that certain boards have more volunteers than others.

TABLE III

ORDER NUMBER POSITIONS OF THE FIRST 5,000 SERIAL NUMBERS IN GROUPS OF 1000

5000 Serial Numbers in Groups of 100	Order Number Positions (Thousands)						Order Number Positions (Thousands)				
	1*	2	3	4	4.5†		5†	6	7	8	9
0–100	4	9	6	15	14		5	16	11	10	10
101–200	22	20	15	12	6		5	8	1	6	5
201–300	0	4	15	6	5		4	24	26	8	8
301–400	0	0	7	7	4		12	23	11	24	12
401–500	0	0	3	4	10		2	9	17	33	22
Sub-total (1–500)	26	33	46	44	39		28	80	66	81	57
501–600	0	0	3	0	0		6	12	13	29	37
601–700	2	6	12	14	5		8	11	11	16	15
701–800	1	6	10	16	11		8	10	11	14	13
801–900	2	1	6	11	6		8	17	17	20	12
901–1000	0	0	2	4	2		1	17	21	23	30
Sub-total (1–1000)	31	46	79	89	63		59	147	139	183	164
1001–1100	0	0	7	7	2		0	14	17	29	24
1101–1200	0	0	8	6	2		4	17	12	24	27
1201–1300	3	0	6	5	8		6	18	24	12	18
1301–1400	3	4	11	14	4		9	20	10	10	15
1401–1500	1	2	11	10	7		11	19	14	13	12
Sub-total (1–1500)	38	52	122	131	86		89	235	216	271	260
1501–1600	0	0	1	5	4		8	17	17	22	26
1601–1700	0	0	3	5	3		5	18	16	22	28
1701–1800	0	0	2	3	0		0	2	17	27	49
1801–1900	2	4	6	8	7		10	15	16	22	10
1901–2000	0	7	9	11	6		7	13	11	18	18
Sub-total (1–2000)	40	63	143	163	106		119	300	293	382	391
2001–2100	0	4	11	10	9		3	13	21	16	13
2101–2200	0	0	2	4	4		2	13	19	28	28
2201–2300	0	0	5	8	0		4	11	17	21	34
2301–2400	0	0	2	0	0		0	4	7	21	66
2401–2500	12	9	17	11	5		8	12	8	10	8
Sub-total (1–2500)	52	76	180	196	124		136	353	365	478	540
2501–2600	16	12	15	10	7		2	9	12	13	4
2601–2700	10	11	14	14	4		6	6	7	15	13
2701–2800	11	11	15	10	6		10	9	12	7	9
2801–2900	6	5	10	16	10		4	12	15	7	15
2901–3000	9	9	17	18	6		10	11	5	8	6
Sub-total (1–3000)	104	124	251	264	157		168	400	416	528	587
3001–3100	13	16	9	6	5		3	17	13	10	8
3101–3200	15	8	6	10	9		5	14	15	12	6
3201–3300	7	13	10	18	7		8	15	10	6	6
3301–3400	5	11	10	14	9		12	14	14	2	9
3401–3500	17	11	17	12	9		7	14	4	4	5
Sub-total (1–3500)	161	183	303	324	196		203	474	472	562	621
3501–3600	10	13	11	13	8		7	13	7	6	12
3601–3700	17	12	13	11	6		7	12	6	11	5
3701–3800	6	11	14	12	5		4	13	16	10	9
3801–3900	6	5	9	12	15		9	14	8	14	8
3901–4000	14	19	10	14	5		8	8	11	9	2
Sub-total (1–4000)	214	243	360	386	235		238	534	520	612	657
4001–4100	11	10	13	11	7		7	12	15	8	6
4101–4200	11	17	13	9	11		6	9	10	10	4
4201–4300	9	14	24	9	6		2	12	7	10	7
4301–4400	8	5	13	24	1		6	12	10	11	10
4401–4500	11	23	12	11	4		2	11	12	7	7
Sub-total (1–4500)	264	312	435	450	264		261	590	574	658	691
4501–4600	17	18	13	13	0		7	13	7	7	5
4601–4700	17	20	10	12	5		1	4	14	7	10
4701–4800	17	24	11	14	0		9	8	5	6	6
4801–4900	26	19	16	5	5		5	7	7	5	5
4901–5000	20	12	11	11	7		3	8	12	11	5
Total (1–5000)	361	405	496	505	281		286	630	619	694	722

Space separates order numbers into two groups (above and below 4500).

* The first thousand (indicated by 1) would include numbers from 1 to 1000; the second (2), numbers from 1001 to 2000.

† The fifth thousand (4501–5000) is broken into 4001–4500 and 4501–5000 to permit a separation of the 9000 order numbers into two equal parts.

Thus, chance factors enter in all along the line and any charge that the draw was not conducted scientifically, in short, that every serial number didn't have a 50-50 chance of getting an order number over 4500, calls attention only to the draw and neglects other steps. Saying this differently—*a peculiar distribution of order numbers is not just grounds for saying that the whole process of the draft is unfair.* The only possible and tenable criticism is that, due to the small size of the bowl, it was hard to get a good "mix." A better container of a constantly-rotating variety or one utilizing compressed air might have created less grounds for criticism. It may be a question of desirable sentiment *vs.* science.

By following the chart in Table III, a young man can get an adequate explanation of the "why" of his local order number. For example, supposing there are 3000 serial numbers in your draft board. Suppose, further, that your Washington order number was 5002. In the serial-number column find the sub-totals for all order numbers for serial numbers from 1–3000. Your order number is in the very beginning of the six thousand (column marked 6). Thus any order numbers in columns 1, 2, 3, 4, 4.5, and 5 would be called before yours. At the sub-total (1–3000) level, this would mean adding 104, 124, 251, 264, 157, 168. The total is 1068 or approximately your local order number. Cumulative totals of order numbers are given at the end of each 500 serial numbers. Intermediate points may be ascertained by simple additions to the previous subtotal. By example, if there are 2600 serial numbers in your local board, add the numbers 16, 12, 15, 10, 7, etc., to 52, 76, 180, 196, and 124, etc.

Table III reveals in much greater detail the facts of Tables I and II.

Youth and Education

(Continued from page 235)

tude toward education is found among former college and high school students.

Young people are getting a better education today than their parents got, according to 85 per cent of those questioned; 6 per cent answer "about the same"; 7 per cent say it is poorer; 2 per cent have no opinion. Well-informed persons under fifty generally hold a higher opinion of education today than other people.

The secondary school programs are planned both for those who go to college and for those who do not, according to 39 per cent of the total population; 34 per cent say "for college only"; 8 per cent say "for those not going to college"; and 19 per cent (nearly one in five) had no opinion to express.

Discussion of controversial topics among young people is approved by 72 per cent of the people; 18 per cent disapprove; 10 per cent had no opinion.

Teachers, too, should discuss controversial issues in high school, according to 67 per cent of the public; 23 per cent were opposed; 10 per cent had no opinion. College graduation, youth, economic security, and possession of information tend to produce a favorable attitude here. Forty-seven per cent of the population think that teachers are fair to all sides in such discussion; 26 per cent disagree; 4 per cent qualified their answers; 23 per cent said they did not know.

Are teachers biased in favor of the children of wealthy parents? "No," say 47 per cent; "yes," say 40 per cent; 13 per cent have no opinion.

Physical examinations for all children and young people in grade school and high school, every two or three years at public expense, are favored by 86 per cent of the population; 10 per cent oppose it; 4 per cent had no opinion.

Not enough tax money is now being spent for schools, according to 19 per cent of the public; 47 per cent say "about right"; 14 per cent say "too much"; 20 per cent have no opinion.

Certain states are so poor that they cannot afford schools as good as those in other parts of the country, agree 50 per cent of the public; 27 per cent disagree; 23 per cent are undecided. Of those who agreed, 28 per cent would be willing to pay higher taxes to supply these states with federal aid; 18 per cent were unwilling; 4 per cent were undecided. The idea of federal aid to poor families for educational purposes was approved by 72 per cent; 12 per cent qualified their answers; 12 per cent opposed it and 4 per cent had no opinion. Of those agreeing, 58 per cent would be willing and 7 per cent unwilling to pay higher taxes for the purpose; 7 per cent were undecided.

As much tax money should be spent for Negro children as for whites, say 78 per cent of the public; 16 per cent disagree; 6 per cent had no opinion.

"Quite a few high-school students should be working instead of at school." "Yes," say 54 per cent, "no," 39 per cent, and "undecided," 7 per cent.

Seventy-nine per cent of the people answering the questionnaire have heard of the National Youth Administration. Most think it is a part of the government. Of the 1,174 who were familiar with the N.Y.A. program 82 per cent thought it should continue as a regular governmental activity.

Keeping Abreast of the Times

Personal and Professional

HARVEY A. ANDRUSS, president of the State Teachers College, Bloomsburg, Pa., was formerly dean of instruction and acting president at the college. He is the author of several textbooks on business.

SAMUEL H. ARCHER, president, Morehouse College, Atlanta, Ga., died on January 15, at the age of sixty.

The new director of guidance and personnel at Junior College of Connecticut, Bridgeport, is KENNETH B. ASHCRAFT.*

ELLIS H. BELL,* superintendent of schools, Winchester, Ind., has been appointed assistant state superintendent of public instruction. His successor is PHILIP WESNER,* formerly principal of the Willard School, Winchester.

C. STANTON BELFOUR,* assistant director of the extension division, University of Pittsburgh, is the newly appointed chairman of the committee on debate of the National University Extension Association. This committee selects the national topic for high school debating, prepares the debate handbook used by schools in all the states, directs debate meetings, and arranges a radio network debate on the annual school topic.

HENRI BERGSON, internationally-known French educator, author, and philosopher, died January 4, at the age of eighty-one, in Paris.

MAX U. BILDERSEE has been appointed associate supervisor of radio education in the Bureau of Radio and Visual Aids of the New York Education Department. He stood first on the Civil Service list for this new position. Mr. Bildersee has had practical experience in radio education with the British Broadcasting Corporation, the National Broadcasting Company, the Cornish School of Seattle, and Michigan State College. During the past two years he has conducted an in-service training course in radio education for teachers under the supervision of the Board of Superintendents of New York City.

FRANKLIN BOBBITT and FREDERICK S. BREED* will retire from the department of education, University of Chicago, at the end of the summer quarter.

(Material for this section of THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN is obtained from several hundred magazines, newspapers, press bureau releases, chapter news letters and private letters. While the editors check as many of these items as possible, it seems inevitable that some errors will occur. We will appreciate the calling to our attention of any such errors. —P. M. C.)

RAY OSCAR BOSTROM* has been appointed state director of secondary education for the state of North Dakota, succeeding SIGVALD T. LILLEHAUGEN.*

J. W. BRANSON, head of the mathematics department, has been named dean of instruction of the New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, State College, N. M. In this capacity, he will assume the duties of HUGH M. MILTON, president, who has entered active military service.

The appointment of CHARLES A. BRIND, JR., as counsel of the New York State Education Department has been announced. He succeeds ERNEST E. COLE, now commissioner of education.

DAVID E. BUNTING* has been appointed associate professor of education, University of Tampa, Tampa, Fla.

J. ALTON BURDINE is the first vice-president of the University of Texas, Austin. The post was created in 1937 but not filled.

GLENN L. BUSHEY,* of York Springs, Pa., is teaching American history and history of education at the Appalachian State Teachers College, Boone, N. C.

LEONARD CARMICHAEL,* president of Tufts College, Medford, Mass., will direct the compilation of the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel for the National Resources Planning Board and the Civil Service Commission. The roster is to be an index of scientific and professional men and specialists in all fields.

C. C. CERTAIN,* professor of English at Wayne University, Detroit, Mich., died on December 18. He was the founder, in 1924, of the *Elementary English Review* and was its editor until the time of his death. Julia L. Certain, his wife, who is a former Detroit school librarian, and the associate editor, will continue the magazine under the policies and standards of its founder. Professor Certain was the author of two books on school libraries. He served as director of English education with the A. E. F. in Europe, 1918-1919.

* Names marked with an asterisk are those of members of Phi Delta Kappa.

CALVIN O. DAVIS* has retired from his position as professor of secondary education and secretary of the University of Michigan School of Education, after thirty-six years of service. He was the first editor of the *North Central Association Quarterly* and is the author of several books on the junior high school and secondary education. A bibliography of his writings appears in the February, 1941 number of the University's *School of Education Bulletin.*

L. E. FORBES,* associate professor of psychology, Oregon College of Education, Monmouth, has been granted a sabbatical leave so that he may study and do special observation work at Morningside Hospital, Portland.

The death of JOHN E. FOSTER, executive secretary of the teacher-placement office, dean of the Summer Quarter, and member of the department of vocational education, Iowa State College, Ames, was announced on September 30.

ORIE I. FREDERICK,* of the faculty of the University of Michigan, School of Education, Ann Arbor, has accepted an appointment to serve in the United States Office of Education as specialist in secondary education for national defense, effective in February.

HARRY G. HALSTEAD, formerly at Edison school, Seattle, Wash., is now acting Washington state director of vocational education.

BEN HAMLIN, formerly radio instructor at Edison school, Seattle, Wash., is now supervisor of the national defense program of the Washington State Board of Vocational Education, Olympia.

ERNEST M. HOPKINS, president of Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H., is now executive officer of the minerals and metals priority section of the Division of Priorities, Office of Production Management, in the defense program.

CLAUDE L. KULP,* superintendent of schools at Ithaca, N. Y., has been appointed New York state director of civic education for national defense for out-of-school youth. The Ithaca Board of Education has granted him a leave of absence from February 1 to June 30, 1941. WILLIAM A. EDDY, president of Hobart College, Geneva, N. Y., who has been head of this agency since November, 1940, became chairman of the executive committee directing the program when Mr. Kulp's appointment became effective. The program is now being initiated in three New York cities: Schenectady, Ithaca, and Yonkers. Other communities will soon be invited to participate.

J. MURRAY LEE* of the University of Wisconsin College of Education, has been appointed dean of the School of Education at Washington State College, Pullman. He succeeds A. A. CLEVELAND,* who will resign his administrative duties but will continue teaching in the school. Mr. Lee received his A.B. degree from Occidental College and his graduate degrees from Teachers College, Columbia University. He has published several books, including: *The Child and his Curriculum,* with his wife as co-author; *Enriching the Elementary School Curriculum,* and *Growing with Books.* He will also be director of the summer session.

CLEMENT T. MALAN,* professor of political science, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, is the newly-elected state superintendent of public instruction.

G. L. MAXWELL,* assistant secretary of the Educational Policies Commission, has joined the staff of the National Educational Association to handle relations with the Department of Adult Education.

CHARLES J. PICKETT has retired voluntarily from the principalship of Samuel Gompers Vocational High School in the Bronx, New York City. The New York City Board of Education will not press the charges proffered against him of employing nineteen substitute teachers without having classes for them to teach.

JOHN R. ROWE* is now educational director of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica.* He will sponsor sales of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and *Britannica Junior,* handle contacts with state departments of education and library schools, etc., and act as liaison officer between the field representatives and the editorial department.

RAYMOND S. SHORTLIDGE has succeeded GIBBONS G. CORNWELL, resigned, as president of the West Chester, Pa., State Teachers College.

JOHN K. TRAYER of Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa., has been appointed assistant director of teacher education and certification in the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction. He succeeds C. O. WILLIAMS,* who resigned in February to return to the faculty of Pennsylvania State College.

M. E. TURNER has resigned from the presidency of the Lewiston, Idaho, State Normal School, effective September 1.

L. H. VAN HOUTEN* is the new president of the Edinboro, Pa., State Teachers College.

HARRY N. WRIGHT,* professor of mathematics and director of evening and summer sessions of City College, New York City, has been appointed its acting president. He succeeds NELSON P. MEAD, acting president since FREDERICK B. ROBINSON resigned in 1938.

Meetings and Conferences

MARCH 14—Rural Life Conference. Kirksville, Mo.

MARCH 14-15—Seventeenth Annual Junior High-School Conference of New York University.

MARCH 16-22—North Central Music Educators Conference; joint meeting with Iowa Music Educators Association, Des Moines.

MARCH 21-22—Seventh Annual Career Conference for Secondary Education Students. Temple University, Philadelphia.

MARCH 26-29—North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Stevens Hotel, Chicago.

MARCH 27-29—Illinois Vocational Association. Rockford, Illinois.

MARCH 27-29—Second Midwest Conference on Rural Education. University of Illinois, Champaign-Urbana. Demonstrations will include: music in the rural schools, unit-activity type of teaching, health work in rural schools, art demonstrations, school clubs, and a model one-room rural school set-up.

MARCH 27-29—Northwest Music Educators Conference, in cooperation with the Eastern Washington Music Educators Club, Spokane.

MARCH 28—Mid-West Education Association Meeting. Washington University, St. Louis.

APRIL 4-5—Illinois Association of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Eastern Illinois State Teachers College. Charleston.

APRIL 6-9—California-Western Music Educators Conference. San Jose, Calif.

APRIL 6-9—Elementary School Principals' Association, Annual Meeting, San Francisco.

APRIL 7-9—Conference on Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Mo.

APRIL 9-12—Eastern Commercial Teachers Association, Annual Meeting. Boston.

APRIL 16-19—Eastern Arts Association. New York City.

APRIL 16-19—Southwestern Music Educators Conference; with the Kansas Music Educators Association. Wichita, Kans.

APRIL 23-26—Southern Conference for Music Education. Place to be announced.

APRIL 30-MAY 3—American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; joint meeting with the Eastern District. Atlantic City.

MAY 2-3—American Council on Education, annual meeting. Washington, D. C.

MAY 2-7—Eastern Music Educators Conference; joint meeting with the Department of Music of the New Jersey Education Association, in combination with the National School Music Competition-Festival for Region Four. Atlantic City.

MAY 5-7—Institute for Education by Radio. Desh-ler-Wallick Hotel, Columbus, Ohio.

MAY 5-11—National Music Week.

JUNE 19-25—American Library Association Annual Conference. Boston.

JUNE 29-JULY 3—National Education Association, annual meeting, Boston.

JULY 7-18—National Education Association. Department of Elementary School Principals' Fifth Annual Conference, Harvard University.

JULY 8-12—Forty-eighth Annual Study Conference for Teachers of Young Children, Association for Childhood Education. Oakland, Calif.

NOVEMBER 20-22—National Council of Teachers of English. Atlanta, Ga.

Public Schools

MORE than 300,000 National Youth Administration project workers are being given vocational training as a part of our national defense program. Congress appropriated $7,500,000 last October to the U. S. Office of Education to provide for this training, which is to be separate from the N.Y.A. out-of-school work project program, although it covers the same young men and women.

State boards for vocational education and local schools will provide the instruction, which will emphasize blue print reading, shop arithmetic, and basic training in vocations most valuable to national defense activities. N.Y.A. will provide work experience through projects devoted to the production of goods for sponsoring public agencies. Local school authorities will assign teachers where necessary to instruct N.Y.A. workers on the project site, and will employ itinerate teachers as needed.

John W. Studebaker, commissioner of the U. S. Office of Education, urges school officials to obtain a list of all N.Y.A. projects and project workers with full information about their vocational needs. He suggests that "wherever possible, qualified instructors previously employed through N.Y.A. funds on the project should be carried on the school payroll to avoid disruption."

CRITICISM of that portion of *What the High School Ought to Teach* dealing with the humanistic branches of the curriculum was voiced by the executive council of the Modern Language Association of America in the following resolutions adopted on December 28.

1. The council protests the non-inclusion of teachers representing curricular subjects of non-professional and non-vocational content on the special committee of the National Youth Commission, which prepared the report.

2. The council rejects the implication of the report that more instruction in the social studies is a better preparation for meeting the demands of a "wider social order" than the development of ability for clear and adequate expression in English or ability in the use of a foreign language.

3. The council regards the statement of objectives and present practice in the teaching of English and the foreign languages as inadequate and misleading.

4. The council recognizes the necessity for constant changes in content and method in education and offers its aid to the Youth Commission and all other agencies in carrying out these adaptations in such a manner as to preserve the humanistic elements in the curriculum.

IS THE cost of education in New Jersey too high? "Yes!" says Alvin F. Burger of the Research Department of the State Chamber of Commerce in the January, 1941, issue of the *New Jersey Educational Review*. Mr. Burger argues that substantial savings could be affected by increasing average class sizes, now about twenty-four pupils, to about fifty pupils per teacher; by a more efficient use of janitorial services in the various school districts; by the introduction of business-like methods in school purchasing; by legislative repeal of mandatory laws affecting school costs; reorganization of school transportation facilities; abolition of offices of county school superintendents; and the closing of one of the state's six teachers colleges.

He says that several factors oppose any desired cost reduction: (1) the conviction among educators that the quality of a school system is determined by the amount of money spent upon it; (2) pressure groups fighting for a larger and larger share of public funds; (3) an inefficient school budgeting system; (4) archaic school district setups; (5) the network of laws governing employes' tenure and salary increments; (6) politics.

"No!" says Roscoe L. West, president of the Trenton State Teachers College. The country should be able to look forward in the next few years to a rise in national income, and we should expect to meet the new problems which are being thrust on education by additional expenditures.

The total enrollment of all New Jersey schools in 1930 was approximately 855,000. This rose to a peak of 880,000 in 1932 and has decreased since then to about 800,000 in 1939. Elementary grades enrollment has similarly decreased. In high schools, however, in 1930, there were 113,000 pupils, whereas in 1939 this had risen to 201,000. Since 1930 enrollment in elementary grades has declined 16.9 per cent. The number of teachers in elementary grades has declined 10 per cent. On the other hand, the increase in the high school enrollment has been 77 per cent and the actual increase in teachers only 56 per cent. The expenditure for education in New Jersey in 1939 was 5.8 per cent less than in 1930, compared with the decrease in enrollment of only 6.4 per cent.

The amount spent for lands, buildings, and equipment, has decreased at a greater rate. The social and economic condition of the country has forced the school to take care of the unemployment problem of adolescent youth and new curricula, new courses of study, new textbooks, etc., are needed. Yet the schools are expected to take care of a problem which is national in scope by means of money derived from old-fashioned taxes on real estate.

When the cost per man in CCC camps varies between $750 and $1050 per year, the high school costs of $140 to $150 per year look small. The cost of education in New Jersey is approximately $120 per year per pupil. Broken down by 40 weeks per year, five days per week, and 6 hours per day, the average cost per child is seen to be about ten cents.

What other public or private expenditure gives us more value for our money?

THE median age of the population of the United States was 28.9 years in 1940, according to William L. Austin, director of the Bureau of the Census. The median age was 26.4 years in 1930 and 16.7 years in 1820, the first date for which the age distribution is available for the entire population.

Also the census returns disclosed that there were 8,956,000 persons 55 years of age and over in the United States in 1940, an increase of 35 per cent over the number in 1930; that the number of males per hundred females in the population decreased from 102.5 in 1930 to 101.1 in 1940; and that the population remains 89.8 per cent white and 10.2 per cent non-white in both 1930 and 1940. The new figures are based upon a preliminary tabulation of a five per cent sampling of the 1940 census returns.

The population will fail to maintain its numbers by approximately 4 per cent per generation, if present birth and death rates continue. Yet if the 1930 birth and death rates had continued, the population of the

country would more than reproduce its numbers by about 11 per cent per generation. Assuming that present birth and death rates continue, the non-white population of the country will increase at the rate of about 7 per cent per generation, while the white population, including the Mexicans, will decrease at the rate of about 5 per cent per generation.

First Line of Defense is the title of a recent U. S. Office of Education leaflet, proposing expansion of public forums, study circles, and discussion groups. "The schools, colleges, the press, radio and motion pictures, the civic, cultural and educational organizations constitute the forces of our first line of defense."

The problems of youth, new Americans, and conscripted man power lay a special responsibility on education. As Edward R. Murrow broadcast recently from London: "It's a challenge, this conscription, to the educators and the statesmen as well as the generals. . . . The army of a democratic State which does not understand and believe in the principles for which it is being trained to fight, might as well have its ranks filled with mercenaries. I believe that most Americans over here who have had a chance to see conscript armies in action would hope that our own army might be trained and stimulated to think a bit about their own country and not just trained to throw grenades or drive tanks or fly aircraft."

Office of Education publications which will be useful to forum sponsors, are: *Forum Planning Handbook,* Bulletin 1939, No. 17, 10c; *Choosing Our Way,* Bulletin 1937, Misc. No. 1, 35c; *Forums for Young People,* Bulletin 1937, No. 25, 15c; *Printed Page and the Public Platform,* Bulletin 1937, No. 27, 20c.

Specialists in forum planning, forum counsellors serving under the joint auspices of State universities or school authorities and the U. S. Office of Education, include: Verne S. Landreth, Sacramento, Calif.; Neil F. Garvey, Urbana, Ill.; W. Roger Zinn, Ann Arbor, Mich.; Fred L. Hipp, Schenectady, N. Y.; Carl L. Chattin, Bloomington, Ind.; Ralph Hawkins, Salem, Ore.; Richard Wilson, Madison, Wis.; C. E. Troutz, San Antonio, Tex.; Eugene T. Lies, Columbia, S. C.

DISCRIMINATION against Negro teachers based on race alone, in fixing salary schedules, has been held unconstitutional. In October, the Supreme Court of the United States denied the petition of the Norfolk, Virginia, Board of Education, for review of the case in which the Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals, in June, held that the fixing of salaries of Negro teachers at rates lower than for white teachers of equal qualification, experience, and duties violates the due process and equal protection clauses of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution.

Colleges and Universities

"THE problem of occupational deferment of selected students and faculty members will become increasingly acute," according to *Higher Education and National Defense* of January 31, 1941, issued by the American Council on Education. A sound long-range defense program requires maintenance of a continuous supply of trained men in those fields directly related to the "national health, safety, or interest. The responsibility for requesting deferment of individual students on an occupational basis to complete professional training rests as much upon the institution as upon the individual."

In one large university, the deans of the respective colleges prepare specific reasons for requesting occupational deferment for individual students who, in their judgment, would better serve the "national health, safety, or interest" by having military service deferred until after graduation. An administrative officer of the university reviews the data presented by the deans of all schools; and when he approves the requests, he signs them and transmits them to the local draft board. Comparatively few colleges have requested occupational deferment for their students. The decisions of local boards on such requests have varied widely.

Two amendments to the Selective Service and Training Act of 1940, proposed by the present Congress are of interest to colleges and universities. H.R. 2081 would exempt from the Act persons having served at least three years in the Navy, Marine Corps, or Coast Guard. S. 243, H.R. 1411 would cause the draft to apply to persons between 18 and 21 years of age rather than 21 to 36. The latter bill is opposed on two grounds: "that it is unwise to restrict military service to one age group, and that this younger age group will not have had training and experience essential in the modern army. It is estimated that of every 1000 men in the present mechanized army only 260 will carry a rifle."

An advisory committee of the War Department on Education, Recreation, and Community Service, appointed by the secretary of war, consists of the following persons: Frederick Osborn, chairman, Wayne Coy, C. A. Dykstra, Robert Sherwood, Charles Taft, Lieutenant Colonel Harry F. Thompson, and Colonel L. Kemper Williams. At this committee's request, Mr. Dykstra appointed the executive committee of the National Committee on Education and Defense to be a special subcommittee on education.

Hogg Foundation's aims are now being translated into action by the University of Texas, Austin. The foundation, established at the University in 1939 by

the estate of the late millionaire-benefactor, Will C. Hogg, of Houston, can be used only to set up a state-wide program of mental hygiene and to carry education throughout the state of Texas by means of endowed lectureships.

A three-day series of conferences was held at the University, February 11-13, to demonstrate the application of mental hygiene to all phases of community life—religious, social work, law, etc.—according to R. L. Sutherland, director. Conferences will be cosponsored by Texas agencies in the various appropriate subject fields—namely, (1) social work—Texas Social Welfare Association; (2) guidance and public school work—Texas Public School Guidance Officers; (3) college personnel—University of Texas Office of Student Life; (4) religious, personality and community relations—University Christian Association and University Religious Workers; (5) law and personality relations—University Student Bar Association; (6) vocational adjustment—Texas State Employment Service; and (7) home and family life—University Department of Home Economics, University Division of Health and Nutrition, and the State Department of Education.

The lecture program opened when T. V. Smith, noted educator, former Texas legislator, and recently Congressman-at-Large from Illinois spoke on "Education During a Crisis," "Education and the Democratic Way of Life," and "Education and the Legislative Process," at various places in Texas during the month of January.

TRAVEL grants have been awarded to eighteen students and professors from Latin-American republics by the government of the United States under the Second Deficiency Act of 1940 to enable these students to take advantage of scholarships awarded them in colleges in the United States.

In the group are four who are especially interested in education; namely, Rebecca Sokol, of Argentina, who will study methods of teaching history and literature at Rollins College, Florida; Neto Thomaz Scott Newlands, an educational specialist in the Ministry of Education of Brazil, who will pursue advanced work in education at the University of Pennsylvania; Maria Josefina Aguirre, head of the Spanish Department at Santiago College, who will study American educational methods at Bryn Mawr College; and Carols A. Freire Alarcon, secretary of "Escuela Industrial de Concepcion" of Chile, who will pursue courses in education and psychology at Tufts College.

TEN graduate fellowships in government management are offered by the University of Denver, School of Commerce, Accounts, and Finance for the 18-month period, September, 1941, to March, 1943, under a grant from The Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. They are intended to afford professional training in the field of public fiscal management, with particular emphasis on state and local governments. The course in government management is designed for employment with a non-political civic body (civic associations, survey organizations, public management firms, or institutions of higher learning) rather than with a governmental agency.

The maximum fellowship stipend is $100 per month for single persons and $150 per month for married men. Applicants should have a bachelor's degree and preparation in political science and accounting and should be less than thirty-one years of age. Applications must be filed with the University of Denver before March 10, 1941.

A Workshop in General Education will be held, for the third consecutive year, at the University of Chicago, July 28 to August 29, 1941, sponsored by the University in cooperation with the Cooperative Study in General Education of the American Council on Education. It will afford an opportunity for members of college faculties to spend five weeks in an intensive study of problems of general education which they have found important in their experience as college teachers, administrators, or student counselors. The majority of the participants will be faculty members from the colleges participating in the Cooperative Study in General Education, but a limited number from other colleges will be admitted.

The Workshop staff will include all members of the regular staff of the Cooperative Study and additional staff members who combine training in the various academic fields with an interest in educational problems.

Flexibility of program is the keynote of the Workshop. The daily schedule of activities is worked out by the staff and participants in an effort to provide for each participant those experiences which will be most helpful in dealing with the problems upon which he chooses to work. For demonstration of a variety of teaching procedures, classes for college freshmen will be conducted in the fields of science, humanities, and social studies. In the hour following each class period the observers will have an opportunity to discuss with the teacher the aims of his instruction and the materials and methods used.

Further information about this Workshop may be obtained from Ralph W. Ogan, Director, 6010 Dorchester Avenue, Chicago.

THE College of Education of the University of Colorado, Boulder, has announced that the following

nationally-known educators from various other institutions have accepted appointments on the staff in education for the 1941 summer school: Gilbert Wrenn, professor of education, University of Minnesota; Philip W. L. Cox, professor of secondary education, New York University; Jacob Orleans, professor of educational psychology, City College of New York; J. L. Meriam, professor of elementary education, University of California at Los Angeles; J. Murray Lee, dean, School of Education, Washington State College; Karl Garrison, former professor of educational psychology, North Carolina State College; A. S. Barr, professor of education, University of Wisconsin, and editor-in-chief of the *Journal of Educational Research;* William D. Reeve, head of the Department of the Teaching of Mathematics, Teachers College, Columbia University, and editor of the *Mathematics Teacher.*

Education on Air and Screen

THE University of Chicago Round Table series, broadcast by NBC, was ten years old on February 1. It is the oldest nonmusical educational program continuously on the air. While it is an extemporaneous program, it requires more preparation than many programs which are produced from script.

Radio and research staffs decide on appropriate topics for discussion ten days before the program is presented. Three speakers are usually chosen, drawn largely from the University faculty but including distinguished guests on occasion. The research staff sends a two-page outline of the topics to be discussed to each participant six days before the broadcast. Chicago participants amend the outline five days before the broadcast. On Saturday night all participants meet for dinner for general discussion of the outline and subject. On the day of the broadcast, the program is run through once and a record played back to the speakers so that the faults can be checked. Scheduled programs are sometimes cancelled at the last minute to permit a special broadcast of some particularly newsworthy event, such as Dr. Eduard Benes' discussion of the German invasion of Czechoslovakia.

The Round Table is broadcast on a ninety-station network which covers the United States and reaches into Canada, Mexico, and the Caribbean countries. More than half a million transcripts have been requested since the discussions have been made available in printed form. A large percentage of the requests come from business men and some four per cent from schools and libraries. The University of Chicago pays all of the operating expenses of the program and selects speakers and subjects.

U. S. GOVERNMENT activities are being presented in two new series of CBS broadcasts. "Report to the Nation," broadcast Saturdays from 6:00 to 6:30 p. m., E.S.T., is a "non-partisan and unbiased" program on the inside workings of the government.

"No Politics" is broadcast on Saturdays at 1:30 p. m., E.S.T., and will follow the procedure of a session of Congress. Members of Congress will be speakers, with a "Speaker of the House" presiding over the discussion. Listeners' questions of national and international scope will be used on the program.

THE first international conference of the School of the Air of the Americas, called by the Columbia Broadcasting System, was attended by leading educators, government officials, and broadcasters from every country in the Western Hemisphere in Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 27, 28, and March 1. Representatives of the United States Senate, United States House of Representatives, Council of National Defense, Pan-American Union, Latin-American Countries, and the press are to speak before the conference. Demonstrations of several programs of the School of the Air will be presented before the conference.

INDIANA University has received an initial grant of $1,000 for educational motion picture research from Coronet Productions. The research, supervised by staff members of the university, is intended to analyze the curriculum content of grades 1-12 in order to determine those topics for which motion pictures may provide a more adequate experimental background for classroom instruction. The results of the research will be used by Coronet in planning and producing motion pictures for classroom use.

Members of the committee administering the project are: Professor R. E. Cavanaugh, director of the Extension Division; L. C. Larson of the Bureau of Audio-Visual Aids and the School of Education; H. L. Smith, Dean of the University's School of Education; and C. F. Franzen and Velorus Martz, Professors in the School of Education.

Work will begin immediately on four studies, as follows: identification of topics included in grades 1-6 which may be presented successfully by educational motion pictures, supervised by W. W. Wright; ascertaining which social science situations are taught most often in grades 7-12, supervised by I. O. Foster; determination of the basic understandings and skills in the field of business education, supervised by Melvin S. Lewis and John H. Dillon; identification, within the areas of group games, folk dancing and fundamental rhythms, of the activities most frequently used in each grade of the elementary and secondary grades, supervised by Karl Bookwalter.

The Member Speaks

DEMOCRACY FOR TEACHERS

I HAVE been following with a great deal of enthusiasm the campaign of Phi Delta Kappa to direct qualified young men into the teaching profession. Just today I received a letter from one of the finest young men it has been my privilege to encourage to make teaching a life work. In it is reference to things which do exist and which we tend to cover up by writing articles on democracy, both in THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN and in such books as *Learning the Ways of Democracy,* which are, incidentally, either wholly or preponderantly written by administrators. The young man wrote:

"Since you have been in contact with many of our educational institutions and various levels of education, maybe you can tell me the answers to some of these questions. Have you found many systems that let the teachers make any recommendations to the administration? Do most systems have teachers' meetings where ideas on teaching methods and techniques are really exchanged? Neither of these things is provided here, and, if this is true of most systems, it is discouraging and wasteful.

"There seems to be an undercurrent of professional jealousy here so that many teachers resent your coming into their rooms, much less exchanging ideas—and some are either unfriendly or have 'soured on the job.' Other teachers make similar statements about these things. Naturally I am curious about the general professional attitude in teaching since I hope to spend many years in it.

"It's hard to do a job well when you feel that no one cares; that you are wasting your time; that you are fighting alone; or, that others in your profession are unfriendly or hostile. The nearer we can show children what society expects of them by closely approximating it in school life, the better fitted they will be when 'turned out on their own.' "

My first reaction was to send him some Pollyanna-like advice. On second thought, I reviewed my past experiences and I was not so certain that the answers to his questions were not "no."

Is it not true that, in general, teachers' meetings are for purposes other than for helping each other solve problems? Is it not also true that personal bickering and petty jealousy are rampant in most systems?

Is it not true—despite *Learning the Ways of Democracy*—that there is no situation in which more is said and less done about democracy than in the relationships between administrators and teachers? How can teachers be supposed to teach democracy effectively when working under virtual dictatorship? Isn't it possible that too many articles are written about what should be, without consideration for what is? Ideals are splendid and essential, but should we not do more than verbalize?

I wonder how many of us can honestly say that in the institutions we attended or in which we have taught, no jealousy and bickering exist and that only real cooperation occurs. We laugh when we say that the two factions of the Education Department (or History or English) will not even speak to each other and that students will certainly be wise not to take courses from both factions at the same time. If we are honest, will we insist that these are isolated instances?

Some may reply to this young teacher, "Why don't you get out of teaching and into something more attractive to you?" but, is this not avoiding the question? Questions I should like to have honestly answered—and based upon actual fact and not upon ideal conditions—are these: Do experienced teachers often aid the beginner and should we expect them to do so? Does the average administrator promote discussion of teachers' problems? (And this could not be answered by an administrator, could it?) Do we practice in our professional relationships that democracy which we all uphold so vociferously to our students?—MERLE ANSBERRY.

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